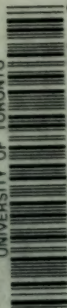
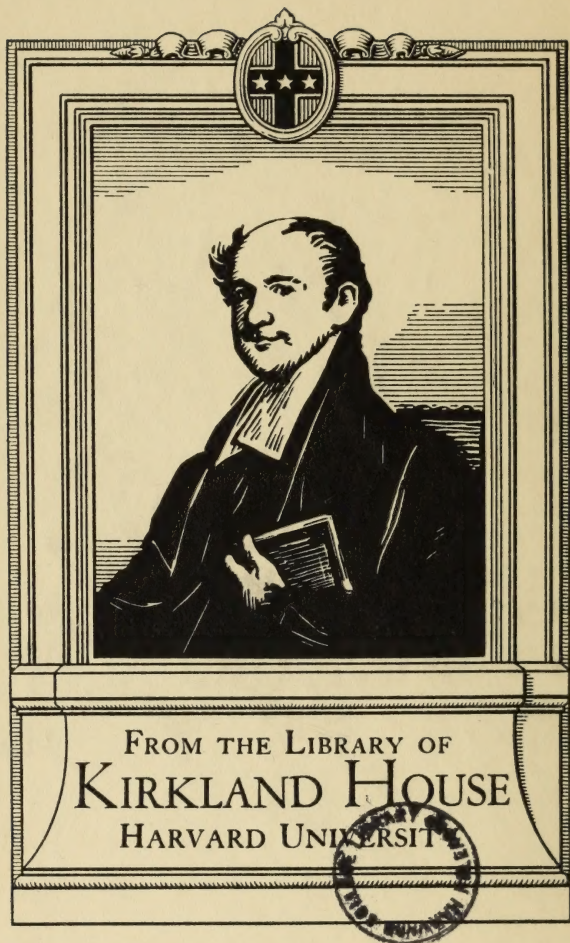


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The History of Banking in Canada

BY

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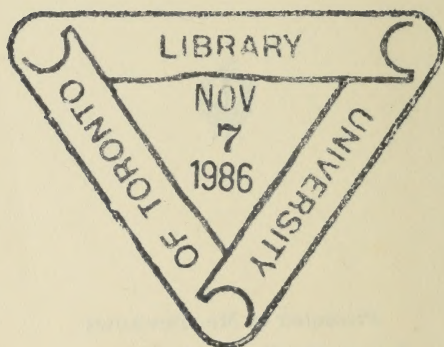


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The History of Banking
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THE HISTORY OF BANKING IN CANADA.^a



I.—THE EARLIEST BANKS.

Efforts to introduce the practice of banking into the British North American provinces were put forth as early as 1792. The "Canada Banking Company," then organized by certain English firms and Montreal merchants, was not destined long to survive its origin, although one at least of its 5-shilling notes which has been preserved (No. 6803) is proof that it exercised the function of issue. It seems to have left little trace, either in men's memories or in the records of the time.

Twenty-five years had passed before the next considerable project of a bank of issue, discount, and deposit was

^a AUTHORITIES AND SOURCES: By far the most accurate, painstaking, and thorough discussion of the development here to be reviewed is in the series of chapters contributed by PROFESSOR ADAM SHORTT, sometime of Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, to the *Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association*, Toronto (later Montreal), 1896-1905. Cited more particularly, these are:

"The Early History of Canadian Banking," Vol. IV, 1896-1897, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. V, 1897, No. 1.

"Canadian Currency and Exchange under French Rule," Vol. V, 1898, Nos. 3 and 4; Vol. VI, 1898-1899, Nos. 1, 2, and 3.

"The History of Canadian Currency, Banking, and Exchange," Vol. VII, 1900, Nos. 3 and 4; Vol. VIII, 1900-1901, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. IX, 1901-1902, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. X, 1902-1903, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. XI, 1903-1904, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. XII, 1904-1905, Nos. 1, 3, and 4; Vol. XIII, 1905-1906, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4; Vol. XIV, 1906, No. 1.

A preliminary survey of the more accessible material was undertaken by the present writer in "The Canadian Banking System, 1817-1890,"

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brought to the point of opening for business. This was in the province of Lower Canada and in the city of Montreal. For lack of legislation giving them corporate powers, the promoters of the bank began their work under articles of association, and so worked until a provincial charter was obtained in 1822. The initial paid-in capital of the first bank was £25,000 currency, or about \$100,000. Like action to that of the Montreal Bank—the name of the new organization—was taken in Quebec by those who formed the Quebec Bank the following year, and by another group of Montreal proprietors, a number of them Americans or persons interested in the American trade, under the style of the Bank of Canada.

published in the *Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association*, Vol. II, Toronto, 1894-1895, and in the *Publications of the American Economic Association*, Vol. X, Nos. 1, 2, and 3, New York, 1895. A detailed bibliography was printed as an appendix to that dissertation.

Illuminating discussion of the recent history of the Canadian system is available in the pages of the *Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association*, published quarterly since 1893. A good part of the work by GEORGE HAGUE, "Banking and Commerce," New York, 1908, is concerned with episodes of the Canadian history or illustrates the organization and operation of the Canadian banks. The administrative technique—the internal regulation—of these corporations is well described by H. M. P. Eckhardt in his "Manual of Canadian Banking," Toronto, 1909. For the Canadian bank act in the light of judicial interpretation there is nothing better than the copious and learned annotation of Justice J. J. MACLAREN, "Banks and Banking," Toronto, 1908. As introduction to this work there has been printed one of the admirable addresses of Dr. Byron E. Walker, who, with George Hague and James B. Forgan, has done much toward acquainting American bankers of the peculiarities and advantages of the Canadian system.

The present paper is based upon the session laws and legislative documents of the several provinces, and of the Dominion, the parliamentary debates, where reports were accessible, contemporary newspapers, memoirs, and pamphlets, and in respect of recent history, upon the oral accounts of many who had knowledge of the events detailed. Grateful acknowledgment is owing, as well for this last assistance, as to the researches of Professor Shortt into difficult phases of the earlier history.

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The successful operation of the Bank of the United States in the country to the south, the scant supply of currency in the colonies and the variety, in point both of origin and of condition, of such coin as was in circulation, the nuisance of promissory notes and merchants' *bons*, issued or used without lawful authority in substitution for coin, and a lack of adequate capital to handle the colonies' trade, to develop their farms, fisheries, and forests, or to expand their exports, had all prompted much discussion of banks some years before any was actually begun. It is of record that even in 1767 the authorities of Lower Canada were asked to grant a monopoly of the issue of *bons* or due-bills. Fifty thousand pounds were subscribed in 1801 toward a projected bank in Halifax, the plan failing because those interested sought monopoly privileges from the legislature. In 1807, Montreal and Quebec merchants joined in petitioning their legislature for a bank charter, and in the session of the assembly the following year a bill to incorporate divers persons as the Bank of Canada reached the stage of printing. At Kingston, Upper Canada, a similar movement was begun in 1810, but the effort failed. So also one of like nature started in Halifax in 1811.

The first bank of the upper province did not begin business until 1819; the first bank of Nova Scotia in 1825. In Kingston (Upper Canada) as in Montreal, the promoters, failing of incorporation, organized under articles of association, the articles being substantially the same as those adopted by the lower province banks. The Halifax institution was a private partnership. Bills to incor-

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porate banks failed in the Nova Scotia legislature in 1822, as well as in 1825.

So far as the records show, the first of any British North American charter granting incorporation to a banking company which not only was passed and approved, but was also actually used by the beneficiaries, was the New Brunswick act of 1820 incorporating the president, directors, and company of the Bank of New Brunswick, with its principal office at St. John. For one reason or another, mostly reasons of domestic or colonial politics, action in this direction proposed to the legislature of Lower Canada in 1815, 1816, 1817, 1818, and 1819, either failed of passing or, passing, failed of the royal assent, without which no legislation of these colonies had force. The bills which finally incorporated the first three banks of Lower Canada were passed by the legislature in 1821 and came into force by proclamation the following year. In the upper province a bill to incorporate a "Bank of Upper Canada" was passed in the session of 1817, but the royal assent was first proclaimed in 1819 after the time limit within which the bank was to begin business had expired.

The legislature proceeded then to pass two charters, the one for the Bank of Kingston, and the other for the Bank of Upper Canada. The second measure, being in the interest of the historical family compact, the dominant political faction, contained a provision for a stock subscription on behalf of the provincial government and was reserved, though the royal assent was eventually proclaimed in 1821. The Kingston charter was forthwith approved by the lieutenant-governor, acting for the Crown, but those interested in it, many of them being

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also shareholders in the private bank already established failed to raise the capital of £20,000 required before beginning business, and thus forfeited their rights by non-user until January 1, 1821.

If ever they were published, the precise terms of the earliest Nova Scotian organization are not now accessible. But the articles of the Quebec Bank, of the Bank of Canada, and of the private (afterwards called the "pretended") Bank of Upper Canada, at Kingston, appeared in the newspapers of the day, as did also the document from which they were apparently copied, the articles of the Bank of Montreal. Through the ingenuity and research of the leading authority upon the early history of Canadian banking there has been found, moreover, a copy of the master document of this phase of Canadian banking history—the bill, that is, introduced into the legislature of Lower Canada in 1808. The first charters, of course, are all available in the session laws of the various provinces.

A comparison of the bill of 1808 to the charter of the first bank of the United States has shown beyond all doubt that the essential features of their proposed bank charter were framed by the Canadians quite in the spirit, and for long and significant passages, exactly in the letter of Alexander Hamilton's provisions for a national bank. In the Canadian project, for example, there was an arrangement for a government subscription, the appointment of government directors, and the payment of the government subscription by government debt; for shareholders voting by a scale designed to minimize the influence of large holdings; for excluding

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aliens from the directorate; for limiting the holdings of real property; for restriction of the total debts of the corporation to a prescribed proportion of its capital; for the payment of half yearly dividends, if earned, and for the establishment of offices of discount and deposit at places other than the domicile of the bank. While there are abundant changes and additions in the Montreal bill, the language of the American act is followed so literally, even through whole sections, as to preclude any other explanation than that the southern measure, proven successful and advantageous in operation, served as model for the draftsmen of the north. The principal interests concerned in the project of 1808 were much the same as those which finally brought about the organization of the Montreal Bank.

When the legislature was induced to pass charters, some ten or twelve years after the plan of 1808 failed, the feature of government participation was omitted from the Lower Canada charters. But in the upper province, as has been seen, the earlier suggestion was adopted by the members of the family compact. It was provided that in the bank at York (Toronto) for which they got a charter the provincial government should take one-eighth of the whole capital stock. Through a subsequent reduction of the authorized capital the government share became a fourth. In other essentials the articles of 1817 and 1818 and the acts of 1819 to 1822 all show marked similarity to the bill of 1808. The changes from this model are to be found, for the most part, merely in the phraseology or in the stipulations

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concerning the capital stock and the par value of the shares into which it was to be divided.

The charter of the Bank of Montreal, for example, recited the formation of an association some years earlier and the desire of the shareholders for incorporation under provisions corresponding as nearly as might be with the terms of their original association. The legislature therefore formed the 144 shareholders into a body corporate and politic, with corporate powers continuing to June 1, 1831. The capital was fixed at £250,000 currency,^a all to be paid up in annual installments of not more than 10 per cent within nine years from the passing of the act. There were to be 13 directors, only natural-born or naturalized British subjects or residents of Montreal for three, or of the province for seven, years, and holders of at least 10 shares being eligible to the office. Directors were forbidden to act as private bankers during their term of office or to receive any salary except such as might be voted by the shareholders in general meeting. They were authorized to appoint the officers of the bank and to require proper bonds. They were required to declare half yearly dividends out of the funds of the bank, but never so as to lessen or to impair their capital; to keep a register of stock transfers and to present to the annual meetings of shareholders statements of the debts due to and from the bank, amount of bank notes

^a Halifax currency, 12d.=1s.; 20s.=£1; £1 (approximately)=\$4. Through long periods the British pound sterling was conventionally equal to £1 4s. 4d. Halifax currency. There were no coins exactly corresponding to this arbitrary money of account, which was used in Canada down to 1858, but the Spanish and American dollars generally passed for 5s. or a trifle more.

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in circulation, amount of probably bad or doubtful debts, and the surplus or profits, if any, remaining after deduction of losses and provision for dividends. Should the debts of the corporation, whether by bond, bill, or note, exceed thrice the amount of its capital stock, over and above a sum equal to such money as might be deposited with the bank for safe-keeping, the directors were to be liable in their natural capacities—severally and jointly, that is—for the excess, not only to the creditors, but to the shareholders as well. As escape from this liability, directors in opposition might publish their protest within eight days of the time the illegal enhancement of indebtedness occurred. The Bank of Montreal and the Bank of Canada shares were rather larger than others of the time, being fixed at £50 each. The Quebec Bank's shares were for £25 each and those of the Bank of Upper Canada were for £12 10s. each.

Shareholders were accorded votes in the meetings of the company in such a proportion that, while the holder of 1 to 2 shares had 1 vote, the holder of 100 shares could have but 20 votes, no matter how many shares he held.^a After the first election of directors no share was to carry a right to vote unless held for three months prior to a meeting. Transfers of stock were effective only when

^a Precisely, the scale was this:	Vote.
For holders of 1 to 2 shares.....	1
For each 2 over 2 shares.....	1
For each 4 over 10 shares.....	1
For each 6 over 30 shares.....	1
For each 8 over 60 shares.....	1

The holder of 10 shares would thus have 5 votes; of 30, 10 votes; of 60, 15 votes; and of 100, 20 votes, as in the first Bank of the United States. In the Montreal charter, however, no holder was permitted more than 20 votes.

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registered at the bank, and even then not until the transferor should have discharged any debts then due from him to the bank in excess of the value of his remaining shares.

Shares were made personal property and liable to seizure in behalf of *bona fide* creditors other than the bank for debt, it being provided that attachments should be served on the cashier of the bank. Shareholders failing to pay calls were penalized 5 per cent upon the amount of their stock. On the other hand, they acquired the privilege of a liability limited to the amount of their subscriptions in the provision, "no shareholder shall be answerable in his private or natural capacity for the debts of the said corporation." Fifty shareholders, owning 150 shares, might call an extraordinary meeting of the proprietary.

The bank thus created was empowered to sue and to be sued in the corporate name of the company; to issue promissory notes intended for circulation and payable on demand in specie current by the laws of the province; to deal in bills of exchange and in coin and bullion; to discount notes of hand and promissory notes and to receive the discount at the time of negotiating; to sell stock (goods) pledged for money lent and not redeemed, and, finally, by implication, at all events, to receive deposits. Practically all other forms of activity were forbidden. Even the power to take and to hold mortgages, hypothèques, or real property by way of additional security for debt contracted to the bank in the course of its dealings was coupled, wisely enough, to be sure, to a prohibition against lending upon any account, upon mortgage, hypothèque or upon land or other fixed property. The corporation

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was forbidden, on pain of forfeiture of its charter, to lend money to a foreign state. It might not raise loans of money or increase its capital; neither was it permitted "upon any pretext whatsoever" to demand or to receive upon its loans or discounts any interest exceeding 6 per cent per annum.

For forging the common seal of the bank or its bonds, bills, and obligations, or for passing them, knowing them to be forgeries, the penalty was imprisonment for not less than six months nor more than six years at hard labor, with the picturesque options, in the discretion of the court, of a public whipping or of standing in the pillory. But for making or engraving plates or tools for counterfeiting the bills of exchange, promissory notes, undertakings, or orders of the bank, the punishment provided was death as a felon without benefit of clergy.

Two other provisions need be cited to make this outline of a characteristic early charter complete. Both saved the rights of the province. The thirteenth section of the act made it plain that the person administering the government of the province for the time being, or either house of the legislature, might require from time to time statements under oath of the bank's capital stock, debts due, notes in circulation, and cash on hand—this "for the better security of the public." The twenty-first section continued the life of the bank to June 1, 1831, with the proviso "that if before the expiration of that period it shall at any time be found expedient to establish a Provincial Bank in this Province, and that this same be so established by an act of Legislature thereof, then and in that case the said corporation of the President, Directors,

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and Company of the Bank of Montreal shall from and after the expiration of seven years from the passing of such Act, be dissolved, and all and every the powers, rights, privileges, and benefits hereby given and granted to the said corporation shall from thenceforth wholly cease and determine, everything in the present Act contained to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding."

Under charters of similar purport the capital of the Quebec Bank was fixed at £75,000, that of the Bank of Canada at £200,000. But it was not until 1831 that the Quebec Bank had called up the full amount, or that the Bank of Montreal, which had had £87,500 paid up in 1818, could report its joint stock at the £250,000 authorized by the act. In 1824 the stock of the Quebec Bank was reported at £51,377, of the Montreal at £187,500, and of the Bank of Canada at £93,825. The latter, finding the trade in American exchange less lucrative than expected and meeting heavy losses besides, gradually wound up its business, though without loss to its creditors, and some time prior to 1831 ceased banking altogether.

Modest as were these capitals of Lower Canada, the bankers of the upper province were unable to report anything like them. The copartnership or association at Kingston probably never had more than £11,500 of capital paid in. That was about the sum at which it stood when, partly because of internal dissensions, partly by reason of unskilled or ill-advised operations, the partnership became bankrupt late in September, 1822. Against a note issue and other debts to the public of some £19,000, the bank had due to it on bond and note a sum

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rising £22,000. The liquidation, however, was sadly mismanaged from the outset and after sixteen years and more there was still a sum of £5,000 due divers creditors of Upper Canada's first bank. The shareholders appear to have lost all they put in.

Notwithstanding the backers of the chartered Bank of Upper Canada had proposed the ambitious capital of £200,000, at the time their bill was presented to the legislature, they soon had sufficient experience of the scarcity of coin in the province to obtain a reduction of 50 per cent in the sum of specie required to be paid in before the beginning of business. By an act of 1822, the bank was allowed to start with £10,000 paid in. In 1823 the authorized capital was also reduced by half to £100,000, at the same time as the provincial government was empowered to appoint four of the fifteen directors. Two years from the foundation of the bank in 1822, the capital paid up was only £28,181; in 1826 it stood at £54,037; in 1828 at £72,410, and not until 1830 did it reach £100,000. Half the £10,640 or less, with which the bank had begun operations, was found by the provincial government. As early as 1817, and again in 1819, the legislature of Upper Canada had made a certain improvement upon Lower Canada acts in so far as the acts passed here forbade the bank to issue notes for less than 5s., and provided that upon refusing payment of its bills in specie a bank should suspend proceedings until payment had been resumed. The Bank of Upper Canada was expressly authorized to establish branches. The lower province establishments, on the other hand, were nowhere enjoined to confine their operations to one place.

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No one can pretend, after scrutiny of the earliest Canadian charters, that the laws governing banking were strict or their conditions severe. Provisions now reckoned indispensable for protecting the public were either lacking altogether, or, if embodied in the legislation, were deficient in form and devoid of statutory sanction. The liability of shareholders, for example, was limited to the amount of their subscriptions to the stock. This formed some protection to public creditors so long as the stock was not all paid up, but once the authorized capital had been reached, the safeguard of a contingent liability ceased. The issue of notes could proceed to any length, so long as the total debts of a bank, over and above its deposits, did not exceed thrice its capital stock. No apparatus was provided to insure the specie payment of the shares or of calls upon the shares, before the bank began to exercise its rights. No specific penalty, except in Upper Canada, and then it was a mild one, was imposed for suspension of specie payment. Neither were there safeguards against a bank's lending on its own shares, or against directors unduly exploiting in their own behalf their institution's control of funds. The one offense deserving forfeiture of charter, in the opinion of the Lower Canada legislature, seems to have been the loan of money to a foreign state.

As it happened, however, those who owned and managed the first banks were animated by another purpose than to take advantage of the law's defects. What they wanted, apparently, was to make as large a legitimate profit as they might in relying upon legitimate means. The original proprietaries of the Bank of Montreal and

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Quebec Bank included a goodly proportion of the wealth and respectability in those cities, and that of the Bank of Upper Canada, though politics rather than commerce predominated, was made up of those who had won standing, esteem, and power in the province. Both the Bank of Montreal and the Bank of Upper Canada had the advantage of alliance with the dominant political party; the Bank of Montreal was favored also with the government account. Until 1832 no other bank was chartered in either province.

In the lower province, the prejudice of the French Canadians against paper currency and their reluctance to accord their English neighbors legislative favors in the shape of charters; in the upper province, the determination of an efficient and well intrenched political faction to keep the valuable franchise of banking in its own hands along with any other available opportunity for power or profit—these were the factors that, for the time at any rate, prevented the multiplication of banks. The influence in the legislative council of the partners of a private banking company formed in 1825 hindered the issue of a legislative charter to any bank in Nova Scotia before 1832, while with one small exception, no bank was authorized in New Brunswick between 1820 and 1835. The difficult period of youth, accordingly, was passed by all the early banks in communities where lenders of money were able more or less to pick their risks.

It must not be forgotten, however, that these were also communities to which the practice of banking was so far familiar only by hearsay, by experience with like institutions in the United States, or by use, outside of banks, of the contracts, securities, money, bullion, and pledges in

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which banks dealt. All the colonies were accustomed to the trade in bills of exchange, for the great bulk of manufactures and a large proportion of the supplies used in any of them had to be imported from the south, the West Indies, or Great Britain. Furthermore, it was the custom of the British military establishment, as of the French commissariat before the conquest, to find funds for local expenditures in part at least by the sale of bills instead of by the import of specie. New France had learned the disadvantages of a legal-tender paper currency through a grievous experience with "card money" issued during the closing decades of French rule in enormously excessive quantities, quite beyond the power or inclination of the home treasury to redeem. Hence a deep-seated distrust of paper among the French population of Lower Canada and a disposition to hoard coin. In Nova Scotia, a first issue of treasury notes had been made in 1812, and other issues, all reissuable but not all of them redeemable on demand, followed in 1813, 1817, and 1819. In the two Canadas, finally, apart from divers private promises, there had circulated during the war of 1812 and for some time thereafter, the so-called army bills—legal-tender paper paid out by the commissary-general of the forces in exchange for supplies for the troops, and redeemable in bills of exchange upon the British treasury. With these last the experience had been satisfactory to a degree. Why it had been satisfactory the Canadians of the time seem not always to have understood. Some of them, at all events, overlooked the fact that they were selling their produce at high prices and getting cheap bills of exchange wherewith to pay for imports. Some failed to see that the wealth and

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→ prosperity of the colony were increasing swiftly under the stimulus of a copious inflow of capital from without. Such persons were inclined to explain the good times that lasted through the war and for several years beyond the peace merely by the abundance of a circulating medium, convenient, easily recognized, and of a uniform value.

Inasmuch as the colonies had no coins of their own minting and most of the British specie was promptly exported across the Atlantic, a uniform currency had to be a paper currency. Legal tender, consisting of French, American, South American, Spanish, Portuguese, and Mexican coins, such as these colonies had, each coin given its special rating by the act which made it current, could scarcely furnish a uniform circulating medium in any circumstances. Thus the money changer found his opening and the shrewd peddler or trader took every chance to pay out overrated coin and to retire the gold or silver pieces worth more elsewhere than in Montreal or Quebec. Later on, even the banks, when called upon to redeem notes in specie, did not always scorn to furnish coin of a bullion value so far below the nominal rating that the applicant stood to lose less by paying a stiff rate of exchange for the means of remittance he desired. While the Imperial Government expenditure on the one side and on the other the British North American export of timber, furs, grain, and, later on, pork and flour, generally gave the colonies a favorable balance as against Britain, and the exports to the south or sales of exchange thither a favorable balance in the United States as well, about the only practicable way to realize this balance was by import of specie over the difficult and costly routes from Boston

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and New York. Once the equilibrium was restored, the Canadian colonies were subject to a pretty regular drain of the smaller coin through the traffic with the American settlements along their southern borders. Not infrequently it was necessary to make considerable payments for produce shipped from the United States by the St. Lawrence. With the reduction of the imperial forces in the colonies, and with the decline in the demand for their exports, which occurred in 1815-1819, the comparative comfort of the Canadian position sensibly diminished.

The situation, nevertheless, was to all appearances one in which there were both need and opportunity for banks. In satisfying the needs of their communities for currency and capital the banks might have been tempted unduly to expand the structure of credit or to inflate their note issues beyond the point of safety. But best to take advantage of the lucrative opportunities of the specie and exchange market, they were obliged to keep their resources fairly well in hand, their position tolerably sound. From the outset, directors and cashiers appear to have kept steadily in mind the prospect of calls for redemption either in specie or exchange. In Lower Canada, of course, competition for the note issue caused each of the banks to act on the other as a check. In the upper province, where the Bank of Upper Canada had no local rival, there were always need for exchange and a well-nigh constant call for coin in the American trade. Though it ceased to redeem its own notes in Montreal in 1826, it was still obliged to furnish exchange upon the Lower Canadian towns. Not seldom pressure was suffered from agents or customers of the Lower Canada banks, such

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pressure being applied in the territory the Bank of Upper Canada reckoned peculiarly its own.

Hence even in the western community, where nearly forty years were to pass before strictly commercial banking was generally to supersede lending upon accommodation paper, or land banking thinly veiled, there was abundant incentive to prudent administration. Rather than statutory precautions, it was the process of frequent redemption, the competition between banks, the size of the capitals which their proprietors had at stake—large, compared to the resources and development of their several communities—and the restriction of the banking franchise to a few which saved the first Canadian banks from disastrous error and their creditors from serious loss.

What was true then held true through most of the subsequent history of the Canadian banks. Worse frauds and more scandalous bank failures occurred under the developed Dominion legislation of 1871 and 1880 than in any of the provinces prior to confederation. From 1829 to 1866, indeed, not one bank chartered by Upper Canada Lower Canada, or Nova Scotia went down in failure. There were losses, to be sure, and heavy ones, notably in the middle twenties, and again after the panic of 1837, in the trying times of 1848-49, and after the collapse of 1857, but, barring the expressly authorized suspensions of 1837-1839, they managed, all of them, and throughout the term, to uphold their solvency and to maintain the redemption of their obligations in coin.

To describe the scene of the banks' expansion in numbers, offices, resources, and strength, to provide the set-

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ting for the story of their development, would be an excursus into economic history beyond this paper's scope. It will be necessary, for the most part, to confine the sketch of events preceding 1867, to an account of the changes in the statutes, regulating banks. And, since the two Canadas, now known as Ontario and Quebec, which were united into the Province of Canada in 1841, became the dominant Provinces in the Dominion, possessing at Confederation the largest number of banks and the most important body of bank legislation, the narrative will be concerned with the Canadian development in the narrower sense of the term.

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II.—BANK EXPANSION AND REGULATION, 1825-1841.

English immigration, the spread of clearings and the opening up of farms, the growth of the milling industry and generous expenditures upon public works, largely of funds from abroad, combined to give the Upper Canadian economy a decided upward swing, late in the twenties. How marked was the enhancement of prosperity of the Province generally, the increase of land values or the improvement of trade, is suggested by the circumstance that in 1830 the Bank of Upper Canada's capital had been paid up in full, and stood at £100,000, as against £10,640 eight years before. Its discounts—£107,598 at the end of 1826—were £260,557 at the beginning of 1831; its circulation had risen from £87,339 to £187,039 and its specie from £19,066 to £42,664. A dividend of 8 per cent every year but the first since organization, and two bonuses of 6 per cent each, made the tidy sum of £51,000, distributed to shareholders inside of nine years. Notwithstanding the increase of its resources, the bank found itself unable to meet the rapidly growing demand for loans.

Accordingly, the management asked the authority further to increase the stock. In the session of 1831-32 the legislature permitted the addition of £100,000. In the same session, the petition of merchants and others of Kingston, who had been seeking a charter since 1829, was finally given a favorable hearing, and authority

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accorded for the organization in their city of the Commercial Bank of the Midland district, with a capital stock of £100,000. Except that returns of condition were required in greater detail and in the form of a balance sheet, this charter showed few advances over that granted the older bank thirteen years before. The bank was suffered to begin business with £40,000 subscribed and £10,000 paid up; but both the banks were forbidden at this time, on penalty of charter forfeiture, to lend upon the security of their own shares. When the Bank of Upper Canada opened subscription books for the 8,000 new shares, six months after the passing of the act, individual subscriptions being limited to 80 shares, applications were received for no less than 25,679 shares, or £320,987 10s. In Upper Canada, at least, there were already in evidence an enthusiasm for banking ventures, a belief in the sovereign advantages of banking establishments, which were soon to pass all bounds.

Rather more than a year after both the old and the new banks had begun operations under the acts of 1832, rumors of royal disallowance of the legislation became current. Through 15 or more agencies, the banks had discounted some £450,000. Their circulation amounted to £300,000. The rumor caused a panic, a panic intensified when the banks ceased discounting, and only allayed when they began again to lend. In point of fact, the colonial office had not gone the length of recommending the disallowance of the acts. But, under date of May 9, 1833, the authorities of Downing Street threatened so to do unless the measures were amended in accord with certain regulations of 1830 framed by the committee

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of the privy council for trade and plantations for observance in all legislation for the creation of new banks in the colonies or for the increase of the capital of old ones. "These were precautions," said the secretary of state for the colonies, voicing the opinion of the lords of the treasury, "rendered more necessary by an experience of the prejudicial effects, which have in former periods resulted from the extension of the banking system in the neighboring states without the restrictions they impose." In addition to those prescribed in 1830, the lords of the treasury were of the opinion, certain other conditions should be insisted upon with a view to the security of the public, "both as regards the certainty of the convertibility of the paper issued into specie on demand, as well as the prevention of a series of fluctuations in the amount and value of paper money, which are attended with consequences yet more disastrous to the community."

In deference, however, to the emphatic protests of representatives of Upper Canada, who were in London at that time, the regulations thus revised and expanded in May were modified in October. The substance of those suggested for incorporation in the charter of the Commercial Bank was as follows:

1. The charter of the bank to be forfeited for suspension of specie payments for more than sixty days consecutively or within a year.

2. Notes for circulation to be dated at the place of issue and to be payable on demand, in specie, at the place of date and issue, as well as at the principal office of the

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bank, it being expressly understood that it is not intended by this regulation that any branch establishment shall be called upon to pay the notes either of the principal bank or of the other branches.

3. Half the subscribed capital to be paid in forthwith; the moiety at the discretion of the bank.

4. Directors, whether as drawers, acceptors, or indorsers, not to have more than one-third the total discounts.

5. The bank not to hold its own stock or to make advances thereon to shareholders.

6. Weekly balance sheets to be kept at the bank's head office, and from these to be prepared half-yearly average statements of the assets and liabilities, which, together with a statement of the rate and amount of the dividend and of the amount of reserved profits, shall be furnished to the government and published; further returns to be furnished if called for and if required to be verified under oath.

7. The shareholders to be respectively liable for the engagements of the company to the extent of twice the amount of their subscribed shares—that is, to the amount of their subscribed shares and to an equal amount in addition.

8. The bank not to lend or to make advances upon lands or other property not readily available to meet its engagements, but to confine its transactions to what are understood to be the legitimate operations of banking, namely, advances upon commercial paper or good securities, and general dealings in money, bills of exchange, and bullion.

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Only the second, fourth, sixth, and eighth provisions were to apply to the Bank of Upper Canada generally; the third and seventh to new shareholders only.

The revised provisions found scarcely less disfavor in the eyes of the Canadians than those of May. True, the president of the Commercial Bank, "to avert the ruin of his shareholders," undertook to submit to the conditions of the lords of the treasury, but for the time being the legislature would have none of them. Those which were not absolutely new, which were colorably covered by clauses in the existing charters, they criticised as unnecessary; the limit put upon directors' discounts was described as higher than any permitted in the practice of the banks. What aroused the strongest objection was the imposition of a double liability upon holders of bank shares. This was locally reckoned little short of an attempt, by intimidating capital, to stifle the prosperity and stunt the growth of a community already suffering from a famine of capital. The banks, on their side, opposed the regulation making notes payable not only at the place of date and issue, but also at the principal office of the promissor, as altogether too difficult and expensive of observance. The heavy outlays for transporting specie, and the dispersal of reserves, or the considerably larger reserves which would be needed, were they subjected to this obligation, lent a certain merit to their contention. What the banks were doing, and wished to keep on doing, was to date notes at the principal office and to conduct branches merely as offices of discount and deposit which would pay out, as circulation was needed, the notes of the parent establishment.

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Instead of amending the Commercial Bank's charter in the manner proposed by the imperial authorities, the legislature of Upper Canada, after receiving the report of a committee charged with considering the question in all its bearings, adopted an address to the King, deploring the exercise of the royal veto and praying that the bank acts might stand as they were. Objection to any other course was offered, not only because of the confusion and distress which would follow the disallowance, but also because of the undesirability of imperial interference in what the Canadians were pleased to consider an entirely local affair. In acquainting the lieutenant-governor, in May, 1834, of the King's purpose not to disallow the acts, the secretary of state for the colonies justified this decision by the long time the acts had been in force, the excellent practice of the banks, and the inconvenience likely to follow any other course. But at the same time he took care to insist upon the right of the Crown to impose such conditions as might be thought necessary for the regulation of colonial banks.

Shortly before the Upper Canadian charters had drawn the criticism of the colonial office, a new bank had been chartered by the legislature of the lower province in answer to a petition from merchants and others of Montreal. But, notwithstanding its lack of provisions corresponding to the original proposals of the committee for trade or to the revised regulations of 1833, the act incorporating the City Bank, met with no objection from Downing Street, except on the score that the penalties provided against counterfeit and embezzlement were too severe. When this fault was corrected, the act was approved. The home authori-

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ties, consequently, were more or less exposed to the charges of inconsistency which the outraged Upper Canadians freely made. But while the first effort to impose limits to colonial autonomy in the matter of banking was not insistently carried through, it proved possible in the end to subject Canadian banks, not only to the restrictions already cited, but also to additional regulations considerably more comprehensive and distinctly better devised.

The City Bank was not allowed to begin business until £40,000 of capital, out of £200,000 authorized, had been paid up and was in the actual possession of the corporation. Notes for less than £1 5s. (\$5) currency, were limited to a sum not greater than one-fifth of the capital stock paid up. Notes for less than 5s. were forbidden. The total debts, as usual, were limited to thrice the capital stock paid up, over and above such sums as might be deposited with the bank for safe-keeping. The charter was forthwith to cease and determine if at any time the circulation should exceed the limit thus set by the act, and the president, vice-president, and directors accessory to an overissue were made personally liable. The bank, finally, was required to furnish under oath, whenever the governor or either branch of the legislature required it, a statement of its condition in the form of a balance sheet. This form of statement, borrowed from Massachusetts legislation, was first adopted in 1830 at the time the charter of the Bank of Montreal was continued until 1837. Together with like new restrictions upon note issue, and the penalty for overissue, the requirement was further embodied in the act of 1831, renewing the charter of the Quebec Bank, and permitting the increase of its capital to £225,000.

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Except for an act of 1836, continuing the charter of the Quebec Bank for one year, the City Bank's charter was the last banking measure to pass the legislature of Lower Canada. This singular restraint is not to be explained by any failure of Lower Canada to share in the speculative expansion of the time. It was due rather to the opposition of the legislative council, where the influence of banks already chartered was strong, to the establishment of new ones, and to the hostility of the French in the assembly to the enactment of charters in the interest of English proprietors. The assembly was further influenced by the circumstance that in 1835 a partnership *en commandite* had been formed by a number of French Canadians and opened for the business of banking, although without legislative sanction. The growing bitterness and intensity of the political controversy served but to enhance the favor with which the French Canadian members viewed the venture of their compatriots, and to strengthen their determination to keep the field as clear as possible of further competition.

When the bank charters expired, June 1, 1837, the corporations created by them continued their business at first under temporary charters extending their existence for a year, obtained from the Royal Government, or under reversion to articles of association such as those by which they were governed in 1817-1822. Thus the Bank of Montreal shareholders, although a royal charter had been obtained at considerable expense, sold out their bank to an association of practically identical proprietary and proceeded to open subscription books for a quarter of a million additional capital, whereby the whole stock would

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be increased to £500,000. But in 1838 and 1839 all three of the banks obtained short-term charters from the special council which had succeeded the constitutional government of Lower Canada upon the outbreak of the rebellion of 1837. These measures made no change in the obligations or the privileges previously confirmed to the banks, apart from authorizing the increase in the stock of the Bank of Montreal.

In a time of grave political disorders, culminating in armed resistance to established authority, the passing of banking measures is generally limited to the absolutely indispensable. It was certainly the case in Lower Canada in the trying years 1837-1839. Even when, six months before the rebellion broke out, the first suspension of specie payments was decided upon by the banks, it was undertaken without authority from the government. Whether or no the suspension was justifiable must always be a moot question. At the time and to those chiefly concerned it seemed proper enough, if for no other purpose than to safeguard the banks' stores of specie against an imminent drain to the United States, and to prevent too severe and sudden a contraction in circulation and discounts. The statistics of the two years, which are rather full, show that, rather than obtaining an appreciable expansion of loans, the public were subjected to considerable contraction, and that in procuring specie for the payment of duties or exchange for the settlement of obligations abroad they were obliged to pay as high as 13 per cent premium. The average discount upon suspended bank paper through 1837 was $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; in 1838, about 2 per cent.

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The first suspension in Lower Canada lasted from May, 1837, to June, 1838; the second, brought on by a renewed resort to arms by the disaffected element, from November, 1838, to June, 1839. For the second suspension the banks had the authority of an ordinance of the special council. During the term of the suspension banks were forbidden to issue notes in excess of their paid-up capital stock or to pay dividends. Another measure, indirectly due to the disturbed financial condition both of the Canadas and of the United States, which the special council passed at this period, was directed against the unauthorized issue of notes under £5 currency and the issue, howsoever, of notes for less than 5 shillings currency.

The discount upon bank notes had led to the export of much of the country's small change, and resort was had anew to the old plan of merchants' *bons* and due-bills for small sums. The suspension had also furnished a chance after their own heart for a number of irresponsible persons to put into circulation, remote from their pretended domiciles, the notes of banks which had no existence under the law. It was mostly in the western United States that, trading on the favorable reputation of the chartered Canadian banks, these operators sought their victims out, and it was generally a Lower Canadian town to which they imputed the home of their banks. By redeeming, as a preliminary, a few of the fraudulent notes at the pretended head office, or at some temporary office in New York or Chicago, they got enough credit for their paper eventually to float considerable sums. No less than seven such ventures were known in 1837, and most of them, though frequently exposed, kept going until the

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second resumption in Lower Canada put the value of their pledges to too severe a test.

The ordinance of the special council limited the issue of notes for less than £5 to persons or banks having a license from the government, and it was evidently the purpose to confine these licenses to companies having royal or provincial charters, or other recognized standing. Penalties, triple the value of the paper concerned, were provided against issues for less than £5 not in accord with the ordinance, and for issues less than 5s., a penalty of £5 for each offense.

Before it had been settled whether the Commercial Bank's charter would be allowed to stand, there began, in Upper Canada, an insistent agitation for numerous additional banks. Those already established also appealed for authority to increase their capital stocks. The Reformers, as the party opposed to the family compact called themselves, were strong enough in the assembly to prevent favorable action upon a petition of the Bank of Upper Canada, but the Commercial Bank was permitted by an act of 1835 to open books for an additional £100,000. The subscriptions for this, the books being closed after one day, amounted to £1,937,125. The only regulations of the committee for trade incorporated in the act permitting this increase were the limitation of directors' borrowings to one-third the total discounts and the prohibition of loans on the bank's own stock. The same year one further incorporation was granted, this to the Gore Bank of Hamilton. A clause of its charter, unlike any in those theretofore passed, forbade any incorporated company to hold shares in the bank, except they had been

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conveyed to such company in payment of debts to it previously contracted. In such case the holder was not to be entitled to vote upon the stock for the election of officers. Furthermore, there was imposed upon the shareholders, for the first time in any bank charter, either of Upper or Lower Canada, the double liability for which the colonial authorities had contended. "The shareholders of said bank," ran the charter, "shall be respectively liable for the engagements of the company to the extent of twice the amount of their subscribed shares, including the amount of said stock held as aforesaid." To enforce this liability the directors were authorized to sue. If, in case of failure, the shareholders failed within three months of the proper time to appoint directors, or if the directors neglected or refused to call in the sums for which the shareholders were liable, the government was to have the power to appoint five commissioners to close up the bank.

Neither the Commercial Bank act nor the Gore Bank charter imposed the penalty of charter forfeiture for suspension of payment for periods exceeding sixty days, consecutively or during the year, nor were frequent periodical statements required. Commenting upon this failure to incorporate all the regulations suggested by the Home government, the secretary of state for the colonies wrote that, had he been governed by considerations of the commercial policy alone, he could not have advised the confirmation of the acts in the form in which they were passed. The introduction of the double liability into the Canadian legislation had been anticipated by Nova Scotia in 1832, when the Bank of Nova Scotia was chartered,

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and by New Brunswick in 1834, in the act incorporating the Central Bank of New Brunswick.

Thirty-odd bills, pertaining to banking, were brought before the legislature of Upper Canada between 1831 and 1840. It was proposed "to regulate banking" and "to regulate the business of banking" in 1831; "to make general the privilege of banking," in 1833-34; and "to establish an uniform system of banking," in 1835. A measure "for the better regulation of incorporated and joint stock banks" received attention in 1835 and one "for the better regulation of banks and for protecting the interests of the public" in 1836; another, "to require banks and other corporations to pay a part of their profits to the receiver-general," in 1836-37. None of these thirty measures passed. Many of the proposals were brought forward by the Reformers, who affected to believe in the general principle, widely advocated in the states to the south, of opening the business of banking under some uniform scheme of safeguards to whomsoever should wish to enter it. But, in 1833, the house of assembly actually passed a bill to enable the receiver-general to issue bank notes chargeable on the public, and, in 1835, a select committee, after prolonged deliberation, reported to the house in favor of the establishment of a provincial bank on the basis of loans guaranteed by the province. Eleven unsuccessful petitions for incorporations were presented by divers groups of promoters or of persons wishing to stake capital in banks between 1830 and 1840. Most of these, of course, were presented prior to 1837. It was truly a time of overtrading, land speculation, commercial expansion, increased consumption, excessive borrowing,

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and undue conversion of floating capital into fixed forms. Through the whole province and among both parties there developed a confidence, a veritable faith in the magic power of more banks, or of more bank capital, as a certain instrument wherewith to augment wealth and to put the colony's prosperity on a basis sound for all time. Three or four other petitions were, or had been, before the Assembly at the time the Gore Bank obtained its act, and in the following year the Assembly was induced to pass a number of charters, only to see them rejected by the legislative council. In the session of 1836-37 no less than nine new charters were passed by both branches of the legislature.

By this time, fortunately enough, the imperial authorities had seen "only too much reason to anticipate the rapid approach of a period in which the multiplication of ill-secured representatives of coined money would involve the British-American colonies in the most serious financial difficulties." Under date of August 31, 1836, the colonial office instructed the lieutenant-governor not to permit any act, ordinance, or regulation, touching the circulation of promissory notes, or the local legal tender, to come into operation without having first received the royal sanction conveyed to him by the secretary of state. For some ten years previous the royal assent had been accorded by the lieutenant-governor to measures against which there lay no peculiar objections at the close of the session in which they were passed. Together with acts permitting additions to the stock of the three existing banks, the nine new charters authorized the increase of the banking capital of the province from £500,000 to £4,500,000 currency, the

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increase of issue privileges from £1,500,000 to £13,500,000. One project was to make the province a much larger shareholder than ever in the Bank of Upper Canada. The colony was supposed at that time to have about 400,000 of population. None of these bills was disallowed by the home government, but all were sent back to the legislature for reconsideration. Meanwhile the speculative collapse of 1837 occurred in the United States, and the ardor of the Upper Canadians was somewhat chilled. Not one of the reserved bills was reenacted. The peculiar occasion for them having passed, the instructions of the colonial office for the reservation of currency measures were withdrawn at the same time as a new set of regulations for incorporation into colonial bank charters was recommended to the local legislature.

While the prospect of obtaining new charters was still obscured by the political jealousies of the province, efforts were begun toward introducing into Upper Canada joint stock banking without incorporation, after the English model. Four of these organizations were formed between 1834 and 1836. The proposed or intended capitals were ambitious, but the capital paid up of the whole group was reported in June, 1837, as but £98,023, the note circulation, £17,148, and the loans and discounts at £143,718. An increase of such ventures was stopped by an act of 1837, making unauthorized note issue a misdemeanor, but excepting from the prohibition the four banks already established. One of the four—the People's Bank—was bought by the Bank of Montreal and used as the medium of its operations in Upper Canada until, after the union of the provinces, it could work that territory in its own name.

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The Agricultural Bank failed in 1837 (November). The Niagara Suspension Bridge Bank appears gradually to have wound up its business after 1841; the Farmers' Bank, on the contrary, continued its operations in a modest way at all events until some time after 1849.

One other new bank appeared on the scene in this period and began business, not only in Upper and Lower Canada, but also in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland. This was the Bank of British North America, founded for the most part upon British capital, by British investors interested in the possibilities of profit to be had from assisting the development of the North American colonies. At first it was merely a co-partnership or association, working under a deed of settlement. It thus became necessary to obtain from each province an act enabling the proprietors to sue and to be sued in the name of an officer domiciled in the province, and permitting operations which might otherwise be prohibited by legislation against unauthorized banking. To this, after some preliminary conciliation of the local banking interests, there was offered little objection in most of the provinces, the prospect of a substantial addition to banking resources being of itself ample to win general favor for the new venture. Five of the North American offices first projected were opened early in 1837, a number of them being provided with local advisory boards. Three more were by way of being opened shortly and four others were in preparation. In 1840 the bank obtained a royal charter, one of the conditions being that the whole capital stock of £1,000,000 sterling should be fully paid up. Curiously

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enough, this charter specifically confirmed to the proprietary the privilege of a liability limited to the amount of their subscriptions to the stock.

Together with certain of the Upper Canadian joint-stock banks, the Bank of British North America was largely responsible for the introduction of the practice of paying interest upon deposits. And, although the plan had been followed to some extent by the Commercial Bank of the Midland district, this bank's officers also brought into wider use a method of lending understood by the colonists as the Scotch system of cash credits—a plan whereby, upon proper security being given, a borrowing customer overdrew his account and paid interest upon his debit balance. It might be doubted whether in any community where the value of land at forced sale is not reasonably near to what will have to be paid for it in private treaty the Scotch system of cash credits is a practicable plan. But however this phase of the new-comer's policy turned out, it is beyond question that the bank gave valuable service to the country in which it worked, not only by a considerable contribution to the loan fund, but also by the introduction of a large staff of officers trained in the best traditions of banking in Great Britain. In 1868 no less than eleven sometime officers of the institution were filling the chief executive positions of Canadian banks.

The banks of Upper Canada did not follow the example of their neighbors, either of Lower Canada or of the United States, in suspending specie payments in the spring of 1837. Authority for a suspension was granted in the form of a stay law passed early in July, but this

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law limited note issues to the amount of paid-up capital stock and forbade the sale of specie during suspension. All the banks maintained specie payment until September. On the 29th the Commercial Bank took advantage of the act. During this term and until it also, in March, 1838, suspended, the Bank of Upper Canada effected a radical contraction in its discounts and practically ceased to make new loans. It sought and found good profits in the trade in specie and exchange, its position as banker to the provincial government and to the commissary-general of the imperial government giving it exceptionally good command both of coin and of bills. As long as exchange was at a stiff premium its interest was to maintain payments. When exchange fell, as preparations for an early resumption in the United States proceeded, the bank's interest was reversed, and a large note issue, together with a transfer of funds from New York to London, became the thing. From the legislature, accordingly, where the Reformers had lost all power or prestige through the hasty and ill-advised armed uprising of December, 1837, there was obtained an act permitting disposal of specie during suspension and issue of notes to twice the amount of the paid-up capital stock. The suspension of the Gore Bank was authorized shortly after that of the Bank of Upper Canada. In May, 1839, the term of the stay law was extended until November 1, 1839, and it was not until that date that the Upper Canadian banks resumed redemption in coin.

The crisis of 1837 was as severe in Upper Canada, probably, and the results as disastrous to the community

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generally, as anywhere on the continent. Much distress was caused by the contraction in discounts, and many a trader, prosperous at the high tide of the boom, found himself in dire want. The collapse in land values was of the most serious description, serving not only to render worthless the security of many engagements entered directly or indirectly upon the pledge or possession of real estate, but also to prostrate confidence in the colony's future. Immigration fell off to a nominal volume; emigration to the United States was begun by alarming numbers of disappointed settlers. All of the banks found themselves burdened by large lockups for which the sole guaranty of payment was badly depreciated land or the faith of sorely crippled borrowers of accommodation loans. Unquestionably the expenditure upon imperial account—outlays necessitated by the political ferment and disorders of the end of 1837—helped considerably to ease the condition both of the community at large and of the banks. Considering how thoroughgoing was the speculative inflation which preceded the collapse, it is little short of remarkable that none of the colony's chartered financial institutions went down in complete wreck. Had it been possible or permissible in 1835-1837 to float more of the projects which were put forward as the colony's economic salvation, it is not to be doubted that the subsequent confusion would have been indefinitely more costly and long drawn out.

As it was, the provincial government fell into nearly as difficult straits as the commercial and agricultural interests. One outcome of this situation was a bill to authorize the issue of bills upon the credit of the province, passed by

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the house of assembly early in 1838. The plan was for the issue of small bills, payable after a term, but receivable for public dues, wherewith to continue the public works, augment the shrunken circulating medium, and revive the colony's trade. The legislative council threw the measure out. The following session, however, both houses passed an act "to authorize the issue of bills of credit." They were to be for £1 currency each, payable twelve months after date, chargeable on the provincial revenue, and of a total amount not to exceed £250,000. The lieutenant-governor reserved the measure for the consideration of the authorities at home. The colonial office advised against the allowance of the act. "The issue of such an amount of small inconvertible paper money as a resource for sustaining the public credit," wrote the colonial secretary, Lord John Russell, "is not to be justified, even by the present exigency of public affairs."

In 1840 the legislature of Upper Canada decided to dispose of the government stock in the province's first chartered bank. The 8,000 shares were accordingly sold for £25,250, the par value being £25,000. In eighteen years the dividends and bonuses upon this early investment had amounted to £38,315.

III.—1841-1866.

To temper the race jealousies in the lower province, to allay the political discontent in the upper one, better to order the finances of both, and to establish a firm, impartial, and vigorous government throughout the territory, it was decided in 1839 and 1840 to unite the two Canadas into one province. The union of Upper Canada with Lower Canada and the creation of the new Province of Canada became effective on the 10th of February, 1841. To the new province was accorded the boon of what was locally termed "responsible government"—government, that is, by a committee of the parliamentary majority, acting with a measure of autonomy theretofore persistently withheld by the authorities overseas.

Under the jurisdiction of the new legislature there naturally came the ten banks, the early history of which has already been sketched. Exclusive of the Bank of British North America, their reports of condition about July 1, 1841, showed a total capital (paid up) of £1,485,881 currency, note issues of £871,423, specie for £341,059, deposits of £626,292, and discounts of £2,693,723.

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In detail these reports showed:

Bank.	Capital.	Circulation.	Total specie.	Deposits	Discounts.
Montreal Bank	£500,000	£227,048	£125,175	£234,686	£936,553
Peoples' Bank	50,000				
City Bank	200,000	108,572	20,378	50,700	340,391
Banque du Peuple	115,759	58,211	8,170	25,360	183,378
Commercial Bank of the Midland District	200,000	205,429	82,890	98,671	461,615
Bank of Upper Canada	200,000	142,849	55,125	144,093	406,927
Farmers' Bank	45,122	14,350	7,867	3,079	54,281
Gore Bank	100,000	77,177	26,385	14,481	165,236
Quebec Bank	75,000	37,787	15,069	55,219	145,362
Total	1,485,881	871,423	341,059	626,292	2,693,723
Bank of British North America	a 690,360	50,564	45,828	184,899	575,152

a Pounds sterling.

Three of the Lower Canada charters were about to expire, and there were several applications for increased capital in preparation, as well as one petition for a new bank.

At the outset, the question of the revenue of the new province was of more pressing importance than the question of banks. But among the suggestions advanced for the betterment of the revenue there was one which threatened the most important source but one of all the banks' supply of funds. That was the note issue against general assets from which, in conjunction with their shareholders' capital, the banks derived means equal to seven-eighths of their loans and discounts. The new governor-general, Lord Sydenham (formerly Charles Poulett Thompson), a friend of Lord Overstone, and a champion of the "currency principle," which was to become the basic theory of Peel's bank act of 1844, proposed that

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the issue of circulating paper be undertaken by the province. What he thus sought was, first, a paper currency perfectly sure of convertibility into the value it represented and free from injurious fluctuations; second, the whole profit of the issue for the benefit of the province, a profit estimated at £30,000 to £35,000 yearly, and capable of being doubled or even trebled in time; third, the immediate acquisition of not less than £750,000 for expenditure by the province upon public works. To reach these ends, Lord Sydenham suggested the establishment of a provincial bank of issue, which, under the management of three commissioners, was neither to discount, receive deposits, or deal in exchange, but in which should be vested the sole right of issuing notes payable on demand for sums of \$1 and upward, to a total of £1,000,000. Any issue in excess of £1,000,000 was to be undertaken solely to redeem notes or to buy bullion or coin. One-fourth of the proposed issue was to be covered by bullion or coin, three-fourths by government securities bought by the bank or paid into it. Part of the interest could be used to meet expenses of management; the remainder paid into the provincial revenue. Corollary to these features was the proposal to prohibit the issue of notes by banks after March 1, 1843; such charters as expired before that date were to be continued with power to issue until then, but without it thereafter. Banks whose corporate existence had already been given a longer term, were to be allowed $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on their circulation yearly, from March 1, 1843, till the expiry of their charters.

The chairman of the select committee on banking and currency, Francis Hincks, became a ready convert to the

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governor-general's views, and succeeded in inducing his committee to report resolutions looking to the incorporation of the project into the law of the province. But from the assembly's view, there were altogether too many objections to the plan. One, as significant as any, was the circumstance that in any economy the chief products of which come from the soil or the forest, a currency of fluctuating volume is no less desirable than wide seasonal variations in the need for a circulating medium are inevitable. From the banks' view, the adoption of the plan meant the loss of a lucrative source of profit, and the necessity of closing branches so as to reduce their lending business to smaller bounds. In the assembly the banking interest was distinctly strong. Upon this occasion, it was backed by the borrowing interests, or, at any rate, by those who looked to the banks for loans. Such persons feared that if the plan went through it would cause a radical diminution in the available resources of those who had to lend. Of some influence, too, was dread lest a provincial bank might unduly strengthen the executive's hand. Although the resolutions were proposed as a government measure, the assembly decided that it was inexpedient to establish a provincial bank of issue or to issue in any way a paper currency on the faith of the province. It was twenty-five years before the promises of the province were issued in substitution for money systematically and in any considerable volume. When these notes were assumed by the Dominion, four years later still, the chairman of the committee on banking and currency of the union was become the confederation's minister of finance. The principles which he then laid down for the regulation

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of a government issue of circulating paper were those underlying the rejected measure of 1841.

Partly to make up for the revenue lost by refusing Lord Sydenham's expedient, a tax of 1 per cent per annum was laid upon bank notes issued or circulating in the province. This proved by no means an equivalent, although in 1841-42 the annual revenue reached £9,560 and in 1845-46 ran up to £15,899. Another general measure passed at this time extended to the whole province the powers of banks chartered by either one of the two from which the union was made up. It was stipulated merely that notes of Upper Canada banks issued in Lower Canada should bear date at the place of issue and be payable there as well as at the principal office of the bank.

A revolution in the colony's traditional system of banking having been averted by the decision not to withdraw the issue privileges from chartered companies, action upon petitions for charter renewal and for increased capital became urgent. Petitions considerably to increase the stocks of the old Upper Canada banks and to incorporate two new ones had found approval in the legislature of that province the last session before the union. The bills passed to this end fell before the veto of the colonial office, a veto prompted by the continuance in this legislation of the permission to issue notes for less than £1 each.

Apart from the bank of issue proposed by Lord Sydenham and rejected by the assembly, three other plans were under discussion. A provincial bank in which both individuals and government held shares and to which should be granted an exclusive right to issue paper for circulation, while it was allowed to make discounts and to take

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deposits like other banks, was believed to be too monopolistic in its tendencies and fraught with grave political dangers. The adoption of a general banking law, under which anyone complying with the statutory restrictions might enter the business, was condemned by the experience with such measures in the United States, by the multiplication of small local banks to which it led, and by the excessive issues, as well as the weakness and deficient responsibility shown by such banks in times of stress. Remained the third plan, the continuation of the existing system of chartered banks with comparatively large capitals, a system at times liable to put out too many notes, and subject occasionally to undesirable fluctuations, but nevertheless to be preferred. The select committee on banking and currency accordingly recommended the extension of expiring bank charters under uniform regulations and restrictions, most of which had been suggested by Her Majesty's principal secretary of state for the colonies (Lord John Russell) with the expectation that provision for their observance should be made in all colonial bank charters. Since these regulations, together with the supplementary instructions transmitted by William Ewart Gladstone, then colonial secretary, in 1846, contain the elements of any lasting improvement or permanent progress made by Canadian bank legislation between 1841 and 1867, they are worth repeating here in some detail:

"First. The amount of capital of the company to be fixed; and the whole of such fixed amount to be subscribed for within a limited period, not greater than eighteen months from the date of the charter or the act of incorporation.

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“Second. The bank not to commence business until the whole of the capital is subscribed and a moiety at least of the subscription paid up.

“Third. The amount of the capital to be paid up within a given time from the date of the charter or act of incorporation, such period, unless under particular circumstances, to be not more than two years.

“Fourth. The debts and engagements of the company on promissory notes or otherwise not to exceed at any time thrice the amount of the paid-up capital, with the addition of the amount of such deposits as may be made with the company's establishment by individuals in specie or government paper.

“Fifth. All promissory notes of the company, whether issued from the principal establishment or from the branch banks, to bear date at the place of issue and to be payable on demand in specie at the place of date.

“Sixth. Suspension of specie payments on demand at any of the company's establishments for a given number of days (not in any case exceeding sixty) within any one year, either consecutively or at intervals, to forfeit the charter.

“Seventh. The company shall not hold shares in its own stock nor make advances on its own shares.

“Eighth. The company shall not advance money on security of lands, or houses, or ships, or on pledge of merchandise, nor hold lands or houses, except for the transaction of its business; nor own ships or be engaged in trade, except as dealers in bullion or bills of exchange; but shall confine its transactions to discounting commer-

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cial paper and negotiable securities, and other legitimate banking business.

“Ninth. The dividends of the shareholders are to be made out of profits only and not out of the capital of the company.

“Tenth. The company to make and publish periodical statements of its assets and liabilities (half-yearly or yearly), showing, under heads specified in the annexed form, the average of the amount of its notes in circulation and other liabilities at the termination of each week or month, during the period to which the statement refers, and the average amount of specie or other assets that were available to meet the same. Copies of these statements are to be submitted to the provincial government, and the company shall be prepared, if called upon, to verify such statements by the production, as confidential documents, of the weekly or monthly balance sheets from which the same are compiled; and also to be prepared, upon requisition from the lords commissioners of Her Majesty’s treasury, to furnish in like manner such further information respecting the state or proceedings of its banking establishments as their lordships may see fit to call for.

“Eleventh. No by-law of the company shall be repugnant to the conditions of the charter or act of incorporation or the statutes of the province.

“Twelfth. * * * The provisions of charters or acts of incorporation should be confined as far as practicable to the special powers and privileges to be conferred on the company, and the conditions to be observed by the company, and to such general regulations relating to the

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nomination and power of the directors, the institution of by-laws, or other proceedings of the company as may be necessary, with a view to public convenience and security.

“Thirteenth. No company shall be allowed to issue promissory notes on demand for an amount greater than its paid-up capital.

Form of return.

Return of the average amount of the liabilities and assets of the Bank
of-----during the period from-----to-----.

Promissory notes in circulation not bearing interest	£-----
Bills of exchange in circulation not bearing interest	-----
Bills and notes in circulation bearing interest	-----
Balances due to other banks	-----
Cash deposits not bearing interest	-----
Cash deposits bearing interest	-----

Total average liabilities-----

Coin and bullion	-----
Landed and other property of the corporation	-----
Government securities	-----
Promissory notes or bills of other banks	-----
Balances due from other banks	-----
Notes and bills discounted or other debts due to the corporation not included under the foregoing heads	-----

Total average assets-----”

Subject to restrictions of this tenor, to the limitation of the small-note issue to one-fifth the paid-up capital stock, and of directors' discounts to one-third of the total discounts, to the prohibitions of loans to a foreign state, of voting by alien shareholders, or of holding stock of other banks except when taken for bona fide debts, to the injunction to cease discounting during suspension, and finally to the double liability of shareholders in case of failure, the charters of all the Lower Canada banks were continued to 1862. For these corporations the most

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radical innovation, of course, was the double liability of shareholders, and next to that, probably, the limitation of note issues to the amount of the paid-up capital stock. The Bank of Montreal was permitted to add £250,000 to its half million of capital and the City Bank £100,000 to its £200,000, while the increase of the Quebec Bank's stock to £225,000, first planned in 1837, was confirmed on condition that the additional shares should be fully paid up by November 1, 1844. Further, a charter was granted to the Bank of the Niagara District at St. Catharines, the capital for this project being fixed at £100,000. All the stock of the new bank was to be subscribed for and half of it paid in before the bank began business. For transgression of the conditions of issue and for the suspension of specie payment for more than sixty days consecutively or through the year, the penalty provided in all of these acts was forfeiture of charter.

The following session, measures were passed again with the purpose of extending till 1862 the charters, and of increasing the stock of the Commercial Bank of the Midland District and of the Bank of Upper Canada. Acts passed with this in view in the same session as those for the Lower Canada banks failed of the royal assent. Each was permitted to call up an additional £300,000 within five years. How limited at this time was the supply of capital for banking enterprise may be judged from the fact that in 1846 the banks procured the extension of the term for paying up the new stock to 1850, while the Bank of the Niagara District, even with the permission it shared with the other Canada West banks to set aside a proportion of "English stock" transferable

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in London, never found the capital required to begin business.

Not all of the regulations framed by the British lords of the treasury in 1840, as norms for colonial bank legislation, were adopted by the Canadian committee on banking and currency. The document received from the colonial office carried a prohibition of notes for less than £1 each. This both the committee of 1841 and the legislature they advised had ignored. Working as they were, with an arbitrary money of account, the Canadians had tolerably sound reasons for retaining the dollar notes. The only coins of nearly equivalent value were the Mexican, Spanish, and South American dollars, and those coined in the United States. In practice, Canada was thrown almost altogether upon the Philadelphia Mint for her supply of silver coin. In practice, too, so far as can be judged from examples of the early issues which have been preserved, notes even for £1 currency were so engraved as to have the \$4 value considerably the more conspicuous. The pound sterling was ordinarily rated at £1 4s. 4d. currency. The British shilling had long passed for 1s. 3d. currency in Upper Canada; in the lower province it was rated at but 1s. 1d. The important trade relations between Canada and the United States, and the considerable note circulation the Canadian banks enjoyed in communities just beyond their southern borders, made it essential that, in some respects at least, the monetary units of the two countries should be alike. The familiarity of the people with the decimal system and well-nigh every consideration of convenience in business or ease in replenishing stores of specie pointed to the eventual

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assimilation of the Canadian currency system to that of the United States. Inasmuch as silver was underrated by the American legislation of 1834, the silver dollar had become worth intrinsically 5s. 1d., Halifax currency. The new eagle, however, had been valued by Canadians at £2 10s. and was the only important coin of any minting rated at even multiples of 5s. There arose in this circumstance, therefore, a further reason for the Canadian circulation of dollar notes.

The imperial government, guided still by the doctrine that the smaller exchanges should be made in coin, were anxious that the colonies should enjoy the benefits of a currency founded on a sound and metallic basis, and avoid the evils of a note circulation of small denominations, which could only subsist by the exclusion of specie. But they forbore to recommend adverse action upon the bank charters on the grounds that the measures had been fully considered by the legislature and governor-general and recommended by both; that a refusal to confirm them might cause embarrassment, and that the legislature had reserved the power of regulating the note issue in the future. When the act to incorporate *La Banque des Marchands* was presented for the royal assent, in 1846, and the obnoxious provision for a limited issue of dollar notes was found in the act, the colonial office sent the charter back to the governor-general with an energetic renewal of the criticism of 1842, but with a collateral promise that, if the executive council thought a change inexpedient, assent would not be withheld. The Canadians stood by their dollar notes and the charter became effective by proclamation early in 1848, although none of the

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privileges accorded by this particular measure was ever used.

While the revival after the crisis of 1837 had been slow in beginning, marked and general improvement in commercial conditions and a lively demand for capital appeared in 1844. The movement took the usual course of an economic expansion, although in Canada the development along speculative lines was carried to no such extremes as in the British railway mania. Still, shrewd observers complained of excessive importations in 1847, and viewed the great increase of staple exports as something most unlikely to endure. Curiously enough, unless the circumstance is to be explained by the dearth of free capital seeking investment and by the difficulty older banks found in obtaining subscription and payment for new shares, there was no widespread agitation for new bank charters. The French partnership *in commendam*, Viger, Dewitt et Cie., was granted a charter, it is true, in 1844, under the style of the Banque du Peuple, and with an authorized capital of £200,000. The act recognized the unlimited liability of the 12 principal partners and the limitation of the liability of the other partners or commanditaires to the amount of their subscriptions. Apart from the Banque du Peuple and the Banque des Merchants already cited, no new bank was authorized until the session of 1847, and this, the District Bank of Quebec, failed to get the money wherewith to start business. In 1847, however, bills passed the legislature permitting additions, £650,000 in all, to the capitals of the Quebec and the City banks and to that of the Bank of Montreal.

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The brunt of the crash in England, so far as it affected the North American possessions, fell upon Lower Canada or Canada East, for it was the merchants in Montreal and Quebec whose connection with Britain was the closest, by reason of their dominance in the export trade. Commercial failures in number, a great falling off in overseas shipments of timber, wheat, and produce, heavy reductions of discounts by the banks, and a sharp contraction in their circulation made 1848 a hard year. How severely the banks were affected appears in the losses written off, and the reductions of capital effected shortly after. More than £206,000, most of it in Canada East, was written off capitals and rests in 1848-49, and dividends generally reduced by one-fifth to two-fifths from the rates paid before the crisis. Some of these shrinkages, beyond question, represented part of the losses suffered by Canada at the beginning of Britain's fiscal policy of free trade, and the consequent abolition of preferential advantages in the British customs for Canada's lumber and timber, wheat and flour.

So great was the government's need in 1848, and so hopeless the borrowing of money abroad, that resort was had to the issue of debentures upon the credit of the province. A total issue of £125,000 was authorized, but nothing said as to form, amount, or due dates of the promises. Interest, it was stipulated, should not exceed 6 per cent. The government prepared the debentures as notes of the form and appearance of bank notes for sums as low as \$10, made them payable in one year with interest at 6 per cent, and receivable for public dues. A step not contemplated by the act was the reissue of the paper

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after it had once been paid into the public chest. For this, the government took indemnity the following year, and at the same time obtained authority for a new issue in debentures for less than £10, payable on demand or after any date, with or without interest. As it happened, the authority thus granted was not used, and the debentures of 1848 soon disappeared from circulation.

For the oppressive sequels of the difficulties of 1847-48, rather an unjust proportion of blame was laid at the doors of the banks. In point of fact, much of the security now offered them was inferior, the banks' resources were more or less crippled, the volume of business legitimately in need of credit had fallen off, and the prices of Canadian exports could not well be expected to rise until recovery from financial and political disturbance across the ocean permitted consumption there to return to something nearer its normal volume. Those most affected by the situation in Canada, however, were disposed to look for explanations nearer to hand, to ascribe their embarrassments to agencies actuated by a will. Hence arose varied complaints of the facilities accorded by the chartered banks; hence there started anew a movement for the provision of banking facilities by the geographical plan, a bank, that is, for each district or for every city and town.

The government of the day included among its members a number of some-time advocates of the Upper Canada scheme of 1835 for a provincial bank; others had favored a general banking law; others yet, among them the finance minister, Francis Hincks, had supported Lord Sydenham's project for the monopolization of the issue privilege by the state. For the time being, the credit of

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the province was none too good; neither was the government's command of funds all that could be desired. Finally, across the southern border, the great State of New York had abandoned the plan of chartered banks empowered to issue notes against their general credit, and as early as 1838 turned over to a system of note regulation, under which paper could be issued for circulation only against specially pledged securities lodged with officers of the State.

By dint of various amendments to the original legislation, devised as the defects of that measure appeared from time to time, the free-banking law of New York had become a practicable system of regulation. That under it an economical banking organization was possible, or that it possessed advantages equal to these of other carefully thought-out schemes of banking law, would be less easy offhand to concede and harder still to prove. Neither is it in the least clear that the Canadian government was acting on the precept "like symptoms, like cure." Indeed, the experience prior to 1847 ought to have shown that what the country needed was not more banks, but more capital to be put at the disposal of the banks in the shape of deposits or stock. Furthermore, the strength of the individuals of the Canadian system, their comparatively small number, and the prudent fashion in which they had handled their affairs, no less than the way charters had been granted, left no room for such reproach against these banks as lay against all too many of the chartered or safety-fund banks of New York and the charter mongering through which they obtained their rights.

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If they had any, these considerations had no sufficient weight against the prospect of bettering the market for provincial funds, or the possibility that legislation of a new sort would still the popular discontent with the province's banks. The government brought down in June, 1850, their plan for bond-secured notes in "a bill to establish freedom of banking in this province and for other purposes relative to banks and banking," which was avowedly nothing more or less than a copy of the free-banking act of the State of New York. The bill was duly passed by both the assembly and executive council, and in August received the royal assent.

In brief, this law confined the issue of notes intended for circulation to chartered banks or persons thereto authorized by the act. None might be for less than 5s. Individuals, general partners, or joint-stock companies might organize banks. The least capital permitted was £25,000. Any bank formed under the act might have an office in but one place and in but one city, town, or village. Articles of agreement in notarial form, showing the name, place of business, capital stock, number of shares, names, and residences of shareholders, and time when the venture was to begin and end were made the basis of organization. Filing such articles in designated courts of record incorporated the bank and limited the liability of shareholders to double their subscriptions to the stock—to the original subscription, that is, and to an equal amount in addition. As in New York, each bank was required to keep in good faith an office of discount and deposit, to keep on view a list of its shareholders or partners, to make half-yearly returns to the government, and to

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submit to government inspection at the discretion of the government. Liabilities in excess of thrice the paid-up stock were forbidden the banks.

Banks thus organized could issue notes only after the deposit with the receiver-general of the province of provincial securities for not less than £25,000 (\$100,000) par value, as pledge for the ultimate redemption of the notes. Interest would be paid to the pledgor as it accrued. In return for the bonds, the receiver-general was authorized to turn over to the bank an equal amount of registered notes, printed on paper selected by the government from plates furnished by the bank. Such notes properly signed became notes of the bank, payable in specie on demand at the bank's office. So long as redemption was maintained, the notes of a free bank were receivable for customs and other dues to the government. Chartered banks were permitted to surrender circulation rights and obtain secured notes upon deposit of securities equal in par value to the sum desired. Upon secured notes the province levied no tax. Additional securities might be deposited from time to time, or securities withdrawn, provided the sums so withdrawn were not less than £5,000, and the nominal deposit of £25,000 were not impaired.

Should a bank suspend specie payment and fail to redeem, with interest at 6 per cent, its notes within ten days after the requisition issued by the inspector-general upon receipt of protested paper, that officer was charged with the duty of closing the bank and winding up its affairs, in case no valid excuse was offered for the default. The first step in liquidation was to pay off the notes from the proceeds of pledged securities. Remaining pro-

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ceeds were then to be applied to other debts of the bank; but if the securities sold should not fetch enough to meet the notes, other assets were to be applied to the purpose. In other words, note holders were given a prior lien upon all the estate of the issuing bank.

Partly in deference to criticism from Downing Street, the free-bank act was amended the following year by the requirement of monthly instead of half-yearly returns. The obligation to maintain specie reserves at not less than one-third of the notes outstanding, also suggested by the lords of the treasury, was not imposed. Rather than make the imported fashion of banking more difficult, the legislature sought to attract the chartered banks to the plan. An act was passed exempting from half the tax on circulation for the three years next following such banks as would restrict their circulation forthwith to the highest amount shown in their last return, and at the end of three years to three-quarters the average of 1849 and 1850. After the first three years, banks thus restricting their issue were to be exempt altogether from the circulation tax, while during the whole term of the restriction they might issue additional notes to the amount which they might hold of coin, bullion, and debentures of the province. Chartered banks were not required to deposit with the receiver-general securities against which they might elect to issue such notes. There was, to be sure, provision made that in case of failure the proceeds of bonds so held should be used solely for paying the notes, but the fact remained that here was an earnest effort making to extend the circulation of bond-secured notes against which the legislature was providing for no special

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deposits of bonds. Two years later (1853) the method of reckoning the tax on circulation was changed so that 1 per cent was collected from the chartered banks upon merely the excess of issue over securities and specie on hand. Chartered banks were also permitted by this act, this time also without special deposit of the securities, to issue their ordinary unsecured notes for so much in excess of their paid-up capital stock as they had of specie, bullion, or debentures of the province on hand.

Unless it were merely a fiscal purpose, the motive of these amendatory measures would be hard to conceive. The concession to the chartered banks certainly involved a complete negation of the security principle of the original law, while the attractions devised to induce larger holdings of debentures were altogether too slight to serve that end. Had the government been determined to force their free banking scheme to general adoption through the province, a much better plan than anything tried would have been to tax the chartered banks out of existence, or to refuse, as the legislature of New York had refused, longer to continue their powers.

As a means to the diffusion of banking facilities the act to establish freedom of banking did not prove a success. The chief beneficiary was the Bank of British North America, whose managers were enabled by this measure to evade, legally enough, the clause in the bank's royal charter prohibiting notes for less than £1. Even three years and a half after the act had become law, in December, 1854, there were but four banks working under its provisions. Of the total bond deposits, £287,125, that of the British Bank stood for £162,125. The three free banks

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proper had received notes of a value of £124,499 and had £106,030 outstanding. The largest amount of notes taken out under the act was reported late in 1855, £309,549; after that there was a steady diminution. The free banks first organized, three of them, sought and obtained charters in 1855. After that they retired as fast as might be their issues of bond-secured notes. The only other two companies organized as free banks began in their turn to retire their paper and withdraw securities as early as 1858, and by December, 1861, the free-bank paper other than that of the British Bank in the hands of the public had fallen to \$25,440. Not until 1866, however, was the law finally repealed.

The reasons for the failure of this experiment are not far to seek. William Hamilton Merritt, who presented the measure to the assembly in 1850 and believed to the end that it was "the best system adopted in any country from the beginning of the world to the present time," summed the explanation up in certain observations he offered to the legislature in 1859. "Why did not other banking companies seek charters under the free banking act? Simply because they made more money under the old system." This was no more nor less than the truth. Once capital enough to start a free bank was brought together in any community, it was necessary forthwith to send that capital out of the community, in order to buy the bonds required as an initial deposit against notes. The notes came back, to be sure, but barring such small interest as they earned on the bonds, the proprietors were in exactly the same case with respect to the amount of loanable funds at their disposal as they were before.

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They were worse off in this, that they were under obligation thenceforward to keep an office for discount and deposit and to be ready at all times to pay in specie all notes presented for payment.

In such circumstances, it would be difficult if not impossible to keep the whole of any one bank's note issue in the hands of the public. Contrast now the position of a chartered bank. Issuing notes against its general credit, it would have the control both of its original capital and of the resources arising from whatever proportion of its authorized note issue it could keep in circulation. Upon both these components of its loan fund it could earn the current local yield of money invested in discounts and whatever additional gain was incidental to banking operations in its territory. The community, on the other hand, would have the advantage not only of the bank's original capital, or whatever part thereof might be lent safely, but also of the resources derived from circulation. The chartered bank was thus the more efficient instrument, whether for the advantage of its proprietors, or for the increase of banking accommodation in the community where it worked. The most significant of any acknowledgment of this principle is probably to be found in the clause of the statutes of the United States which imposes upon the notes of state banks a tax of 10 per cent each time they are paid out.

The failure of bond-secured issues either to further prosperity or to provide the capital needed for the colony's development became obvious early in the history of the act. At the same time need for additional capital was recognized and provision for it urged by those best quali-

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fied of any, perhaps, to judge the market position. In 1854, existing chartered banks petitioned for authority to increase their capital stocks. To look for additional capital in Canada was reckoned comparatively hopeless; to obtain it abroad the opportunity for investment would have to be such as was preferred abroad. The English capitalist was unlikely to be attracted to small or private banking ventures, whereas the stocks of the large chartered banks had been known for years as safe investments. Force was lent to this argument by the promptness with which the Bank of Montreal had obtained subscription and partial payment of a quarter million addition to its capital authorized in 1852.

The policy indicated was adopted by the legislature and provision made for increasing the capital of existing banks. Altogether the addition of £2,010,000 was permitted to the stocks of the six banks who applied. In the case of the largest bank the directors' discounts were limited to one-tenth of the whole. Payment of dividends and transfer of shares in Great Britain were permitted in most of the acts, and in every one of them was included a new condition, fulfillment of which was obligatory if the bank increased its stock. In that case, 10 per cent of the whole paid-up capital had to be invested in debentures of the province or of the consolidated municipal loan fund. Although the majority of the charters had some eight years to run, the corporate existence of the banks was continued to January 1, 1870, and the end of the next session of parliament.

Continuation of the established and so far fairly successful scheme of regulation thus decided, the legislature pro-

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ceeded in 1855 to pass new charters for three of the companies first started as free banks and to three wholly new ventures, the total capital authorized amounting to £1,450,000. In the next two sessions five additional charters, all to new banks, were passed, authorizing a further increase of £2,466,666 in the banking capital of the province. All in all, the new policy which followed the abandonment of the free banking scheme had permitted in four years the addition of £5,926,000 to the authorized stock of Canadian chartered banks—a sum more than twice their paid-up capital in 1851, and within a few thousand pounds as much as their paid-up capital in 1861.

Few new features of a distinctly restrictive character appeared in any of the new charters passed at this time, or in the acts consolidating the legislation pertaining to some of the older banks, which were obtained in behalf of these corporations in 1856 and 1858. One of the more notable was the requirement of monthly statements of actual instead of half-yearly statements of average condition, which first appeared in the acts of 1854, extending the capital of the older banks. Another innovation was the restriction of directors' discounts or discounts of firms in which they were members to one-twentieth of the bank's total discounts, loans, or advances. For the voting scale customary since 1817 there was substituted, in the new charters, the rule of one vote for each share. In respect of provisions calculated to insure the payment of a good proportion of the subscribed capital the new charters were deficient, so much so that if it wished an unscrupulous board might put out £35,000 in notes, even £110,000, upon scarcely more capital than the £10,000 needed at the

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outset for the purchase of provincial debentures. Although the payment of £25,000 upon the subscribed capital was the least amount upon which a bank was nominally permitted to begin business, no way was provided to make certain the sum was in hand. Charters, moreover, were granted in some cases without sufficient inquiry into the antecedent character and responsibility of the petitioners, with results injurious as well to the standing of the Canadian banks generally as to no small groups of wild-cat promoters' dupes.

All this expansion of old banks or rapid multiplication of new ones forms, of course, but one aspect of the tremendous economic advance which the province was making between 1850 and 1856. A rising tide of immigration, great expenditures upon public works, a succession of excellent harvests, high prices for produce, partly as the result of the Crimean war, cheaper freight rates to and from Canadian ports following the repeal of the British navigation laws, the construction of some 1,500 miles of railway between 1852 and 1858, and, finally, the reciprocity treaty of 1854, which opened up the markets of the United States to a trade of highly lucrative returns, combined to lift the province to a pitch of prosperity hitherto unknown. Upon railways and canals alone it was reckoned some \$60,000,000 was spent in the six years following 1850, the bulk of the money coming from Britain.

Along with all this—and much of it, indeed most of it, meant sound and lasting progress—there was a deal of the unsound. Importations, as might be expected, rose to extravagant volumes and land to artificial and inflated values. That speculation, originating in a genuine and

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justifiable demand for more agricultural land, soon turned into a frenzied trade in wild or unimproved tracts, in which many of the farmers, then selling produce for cash and buying supplies on credit, locked up an undue proportion of their means. City and town holdings also changed hands at prices which a subsequent generation would scarcely credit. To cite an extreme example—it is of record that near one town of Canada West a property which sold in 1854 for \$48,000 went begging fifty years later for \$8,000.

Following the poor crop of 1857, low grain prices, and heavy reduction of the inflow of British funds, came the financial crisis in Great Britain and the United States. Thrown as they were almost entirely upon capital and circulation for their lending resources, and confronted at this juncture by the prospect of large demands for note redemption, the Canadian banks ceased to discount. They either could not or would not begin again in time to furnish funds wherewith to move the crops. Within the year their circulation had fallen to two-thirds its volume in 1856; discounts, of course, were cut down in corresponding degree. Failure of the usual means for getting the crops to market tied up the milling industry, threw many out of employment, prevented the customary settlement of farmers' debts, and, as a consequence of this, interrupted the normal course of liquidation in all channels of trade. Without their usual advances, divers local industries were forced to run short time or not at all, while throughout the province, but more especially in the western part, many failures occurred and much distress followed the abrupt fall in the land values. The year 1858 was one of deep depression, a

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depression from which there was only the beginning of recovery in 1859.

No Canadian bank failed at the height of the crisis of 1857 or immediately thereafter. Most of the banks were apprehensive of trouble early in the year and proceeded as best they might to set their houses in order against the time of collapse. Even if none other were present, a strong motive for caution was provided in the constant pressure on each for the redemption of its notes exerted by practically all the other banks, and the consequent necessity of keeping well supplied with specie. At this juncture, as in many a preceding time of danger, this incidental effect of a competitive issue of circulation against general assets served as the most powerful influence for careful management, the most efficient deterrent from reckless ventures, of any probably, to the action of which the Canadian banks were exposed. Unfortunately the factor was of the greatest force, not in the early and middle but rather in the final stages of an expansion. When, therefore, it did develop its full effect and the banks changed their policy accordingly, a deal of popular complaint, not to say clamor, was provoked by what the critics called the niggardly timidity and selfish indifference of the banks. Discontent with the currency or rather with the way the banks furnished currency, whether or no this discontent was wholly justifiable, together with the exigencies of the provincial treasury, furnished the main promptings for the plans for a different sort of circulating medium which were brought forward in 1860.

That the banks had not come through unscathed was revealed by the losses acknowledged and the appropria-

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tions made for bad and doubtful debts in 1858 and 1859. Just to what degree certain of the older companies had become involved in the land and railway ventures did not come out until some years later. Meanwhile enough faith in the country's future remained among some capitalists to prompt applications for the incorporation of yet more banks. The legislature was complaisant, and in 1858 chartered the proprietary of the projected Bank of Canada (afterwards the Canadian Bank of Commerce). Three charters followed in 1859, two more in 1861, one in 1864, three in 1865, and yet two in 1866. The new capital thus authorized was no less than \$16,460,000, much more than was actually added for many years to come.^a

Only seven of the banks ever started. Some of these, like other banks chartered prior to 1858, found it necessary to procure from a lenient parliament an extension of the time first set for forfeiture for nonuser. None of the twelve charters passed 1858-1866 authorized less, in the first instance, than \$1,000,000 of capital stock, of which at least \$400,000 was to be subscribed and \$100,000 paid in (in a number of cases, "actually deposited in specie with some existing chartered bank") before the beginning of business. In three instances the capital first authorized was reduced to \$400,000, while in other cases the repeated extensions of time for payment brought about a practical negation of any effort to safeguard the public by insisting

^a Under legislation which became effective January 1, 1858, Halifax currency ceased altogether to be the official or statutory money of account. Thereafter Canadians reckoned in dollars and cents by law as they had for decades theretofore in fact. The British sovereign was continued as a legal tender for \$4.86 $\frac{2}{3}$ and the American eagle coined after 1834 as legal tender for \$10

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that new ventures should be equipped with a large paid-up stock.

Just as the first signs of rally from the depression of 1858 became evident the provincial minister of finance, ostensibly to obtain the facts upon which to frame the banking policy of the assembly, procured the appointment of a select committee on banking and currency. The new charters of 1859, however, were passed before the house received the committee's report. The interesting part of this document was not so much the report proper, which criticised existing arrangements for insuring the safety of the bank note circulation as the evidence of bank officers, which accompanied it. There the loopholes in charters were frankly and emphatically exposed. One grave defect was the authorization of banking investment beyond the country's needs. Another was the failure to hedge the privilege of circulation with necessary safeguards. Again, no means were provided to insure the full payment of the capital required of a bank, nor was there any obligation to publish the names, holdings, and addresses of the owners of its stock. Limitation of circulation rights to paid-up capital, plus specie and debentures, was illogical and illusory. Coin or bonds could only be bought with capital or deposits. A livelier interest on the part of directors should be incited by requiring of them larger holdings of paid-up stock. Banks were hampered by the usury law; instead of giving warning by raising their discount rates when trouble seemed imminent, they were forced to refuse some applicants altogether and confine accommodation to customers with valuable accounts, or those only of whose solvency there could be no doubt.

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It was a mistake to encourage the organization of small banks. Compared to those of larger capital, experience in the United States had shown that the small bank was unstable and unsafe.

Point was lent to this last criticism by the failure, late in October, of the International and Colonial banks, both recently chartered concerns. Nominally, their head offices were in Toronto, but their operations, consisting chiefly of note issue, were mostly in the United States. The Colonial had reported at the end of September, 1859, a note circulation of \$75,300 and total liabilities (exclusive of capital) of \$99,878; the International, on the same day, \$119,021 of notes issued and liabilities of \$134,087. No great loss was caused the Canadian public by their collapse, but the scandal and the ease of acquiring dangerous privileges which had led to the scandal, called forth bitter and general complaint. Not until 1863, however, did the legislature finally repeal these two charters, and two others, which had been exploited with similar irresponsibility and intent to defraud. One of them, the Bank of Clifton (previously the Zimmerman Bank), had pretended to redeem or to cash its notes in Chicago; the other, the Bank of Western Canada, owned by a York State tavern keeper, sought to float its issues in Wisconsin, Kansas, and Illinois.

For such evils as were thus revealed, or as the bankers had pointed out to the select committee on banking and currency, the finance minister (then A. T. Galt) devised a remedy all his own. Rather than the improvement of existing bank charters or increased care in the grant of new ones, he invited the assembly in the session of 1860

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to consider proposals involving as sharp a break with the past as Lord Sydenham's project of 1841. His plan was "to separate currency from banking;" his purpose, "to put the currency of the country on a perfectly sure and safe footing by separating it from the banking interests and removing it from the possible suspicion of being affected by political exigency." "If the state supplies the credit," argued Mr. Galt, "it is fairly entitled to the profit which arises from its use. The specie resources of the banks are so much capital kept unproductive, and to that extent produce loss of profit. And while the present system lasts it will be necessary that each bank should keep not only a sufficient reserve of specie to protect its own circulation, but to a certain extent that of others. Under the system I propose this necessity will, to a great extent, be obviated, for the whole resources of the country will be pledged for the redemption of the circulation." He proposed to do directly what the free banking system attempted by a side wind—to achieve the benefits of the Sydenham scheme without endowing the bank of issue with the immense political power involved in the right and obligation to discount for ordinary banks.

The first resolution accordingly set forth the proposal that no paper money be issued except on the credit of the province; the second, that such notes of the province be a legal tender and redeemable on demand in specie, that the maximum issue be fixed at \$10,000,000, and that the notes be put into circulation by the banks, who should obtain them from the treasury on delivery of one-fifth the amount of the notes in specie, one-fifth in government securities, and three-fifths in a privileged lien

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upon their assets, paying the government for the privilege of circulating amounts up to half their paid-up capital stock at the rate of 3 per cent per annum, and for amounts in excess of half their capital at the rate of 4 per cent. Specie and securities so received the treasury department was to hold as a reserve against the notes. Since the average of three years showed the banks to have been carrying \$2,422,000 odd of specie and \$2,460,000 of debentures, Mr. Galt figured that under his plan close to \$1,000,000 of resources would be released for the uses of trade. To meet the seasonal fluctuations (in 1859 the circulation rose from \$8,122,000 in May to \$11,236,000 in October) the minister suggested that banks be supplied with notes on their monthly rather than yearly averages, and thought that the collection of interest upon balances would induce the banks to give any necessary elasticity to the circulation. Further, he proposed the repeal of the free bank act, of the tax upon the circulation of chartered banks, and of the clauses in their several charters which obliged them to invest a tenth of their paid-up stock in the debentures of the province. Relief from the circulation tax and from the duty to own bonds, however, was to run only in favor of such banks as surrendered their rights to issue their own notes and substituted notes of the province. Banks already chartered and in operation, or new banks which should open for business within two years, were to be confirmed in their issue privileges to the expiry of their charters, but no longer. The treasury department was to be endowed with authority to issue 4 per cent exchequer bills, which would provide a preferred form of short-term investment

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and a medium for settling bank balances. In this last proposal the minister touched upon what was counted by some critics a serious defect in the existing banking organization—the customarily rigid insistence upon specie settlements at places where two or more banks had offices. It had been proposed in Toronto, nearly three years before, to square the monthly settlement by sterling exchange instead of specie, but the Montreal banks refused adherence to the plan.

None of the chartered banks showed any eagerness to exchange a franchise to issue at no cost beyond the cost of printing notes for a right which would cost them 3 per cent on three-fifths of the notes taken out and the current rates upon the specie or the cash paid for debentures with which they were to pay for the other two-fifths. Condemned by the banks as a currency fatally inelastic for a country in which the autumn maximum reached 140 and even 150 per cent of the spring time minimum of circulation, suspected by the people as capable of exploitation for dangerous political abuse, and criticized by the commercial community as substituting a dear currency for one which was ideally cheap, issues by a treasury department found scant approval in the legislature. Less than two months after the introduction of the resolutions the government withdrew them. In the next session a proposal introduced by the minister to borrow on exchequer bills in the sum of \$4,000,000 was passed. But it was not until 1866, after Mr. Galt's party had lost and recovered its majority in parliament, and the Canadian treasury was come into yet sorer straits, that the bank of issue scheme, much modified, was given

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standing in the statutes as the provincial note act, the forerunner of the legislation subsequently to govern the issue of the present Dominion notes.

Something over \$5,000,000 was the sum immediately needed in 1866 to meet the floating debt of the province. Of this, \$2,250,000 was owing to one bank and that bank was pressing for payment. Balances in arrears had been renewed so often in England that the credit of the province had suffered. English bankers were having extreme difficulty in selling Canadian government debentures to yield even 8 per cent. Mr. Galt, finding the banks of the province unwilling to advance the government a sum equal to 15 per cent of their capital, proposed that the government should "resume a portion of the rights which they had deputed to others, and meet the liabilities of the country with the currency which belonged to it." What basis, either in law or in fact, there may have been for this express assumption that the function of issue was a prerogative of the Crown it is needless to inquire. The resolutions declaring the expediency of an issue of legal-tender paper, which the government brought down, proposed no cancellation of existing issue privileges; whatever the banks might give up in furtherance of the scheme, they were to give up of their free will. Before the measure had been carried through all stages of consideration in the lower house it encountered so much criticism in point both of principle and detail that the ministry took alternative authority to borrow \$5,000,000 on direct loan, and agreed not to use the power of issue if funds could be obtained otherwise.

The act finally passed authorized the issue of not more than \$8,000,000 in provincial notes, payable on demand

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in specie, either at Toronto or at Montreal as the notes might be dated, and legal tender except at those offices. Arrangements for the surrender of its right to issue its own notes might be concluded by the governor-in-council with any chartered bank prior to January 1, 1868, such bank, however, retaining the right to resume its issue privileges upon three months' notice. To any bank so surrendering its issue and withdrawing its notes from circulation within a year, compensation would be payable till the expiry of its charter, at a rate not to exceed 5 per cent per annum upon the amount of its circulation on April 30, 1866. For the service of issue and redemption, one-quarter of 1 per cent was to be paid every three months to each bank circulating provincial paper instead of its own, the commission to be reckoned on the average amount outstanding of the notes so issued by the bank. Banks relinquishing issue privileges were further exempted from the obligation to hold a tenth of their paid-up capital in provincial debentures, and were permitted to exchange such debentures at par for provincial notes. Likewise, having surrendered their own circulation, they were to escape all further outlays for circulation tax.

As a reserve against the legal tenders, the receiver-general was commanded to hold 20 per cent in specie for the amount in circulation up to \$5,000,000, and against amounts in excess of that sum 25 per cent in specie. Cover of provincial debentures to the full amount was required for the difference between specie reserves and notes outstanding. In all but what concerned the issue of notes for \$1 and \$2 by the British Bank, the act to establish freedom of banking was repealed. Further,

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banks were relieved from the traditional penalties for usury retained by inadvertence or intent in the legislation by which they had been permitted to take up to 7 per cent, and to exact certain specified commissions in discounting paper, payable at offices other than the place of discount.

But one bank proved willing temporarily to surrender its rights of issue and undertake the circulation of provincial notes. That was the Bank of Montreal. For the time being, it would seem, the provincial note issue was the Bank of Montreal's favorite scheme. In actual operation, the first effect of the measure, so far as this particular bank was concerned, was to liquidate what had been a distinctly inactive asset. The funds the bank had locked up in the loan to the province, equally with its investment in debentures, were converted into provincial notes available for use in any kind of exchange. In the second place, the bank was not out of pocket by the shift, for upon such paper it drew compensation and commission of 6 per cent from the government, and could still use the notes as it pleased in making loans. The maintenance of reserves and waiver of the circulation tax made the advance cost the province, however, somewhere between 8 and $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

So far as the other banks and the country were concerned the effects were less simple, although it is not clear that the new issue caused any serious or widespread harm. Unquestionably the other banks found cause to acknowledge the power of the one institution which had the government account and had undertaken the issue of government notes. A number were induced regularly

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to hold from \$50,000 to \$200,000 each, under an arrangement that practically precluded the use of the notes as ready cash. The adherence of others to a like arrangement was gained by the decision of the Bank of Montreal to demand settlement in cash at different points outside the centers, rather than to continue the practice of settling by drafts on Montreal or Toronto. At such points the other banks would thus be obliged to pay in specie; the Bank of Montreal, which was generally a creditor in these settlements, could pay when it had to pay in gold or legal tenders. Confronted by the option of scattering their reserves to all the points where they met the Bank of Montreal, and by the same token of considerably increasing their specie holdings, demurring banks generally agreed to keep a quantity of the legal tenders continually on hand. About \$1,000,000 of the notes were thus kept permanently outstanding. Altogether the average circulation of legal tender paper the first year of its issue was a little over \$3,000,000, or about what was outstanding of the Bank of Montreal's own notes in the spring of 1866. Some part, about \$1,000,000, of the treasury needs had been obtained by direct loan.

Such pressure as was used to inject a proportion of the notes into banking reserves, no less than the device of paying out in Montreal notes redeemable in Toronto, Toronto notes dated at Montreal, provoked considerable criticism. Along with certain incidents preceding the financial disturbance in which the Commercial Bank suspended payment, they furnished the material for a bitter and violent controversy, in the course of which the provincial note act, the Bank of Montreal, and the minister

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of finance were all roundly condemned. It is unnecessary here to consider how much truth there may have been in testimony so obviously and so strongly colored by the passions of the time. The only permanently evil effect of the government issue, if that be an evil, has been the diminution of the country's specie reserve, brought about under the legislation which created the issue and subsequently increased its volume. Even before 1870 the mere consideration of convenience led a number of banks to effect a decided increase in their reserve holdings of legal tender notes.

The year 1866 was marked by the definitive failure of the Bank of Upper Canada, the old upper province's first chartered bank. Considering the forty-four years the corporation had been carrying on its business and the pre-eminence it had once enjoyed in the communities it served, its bankruptcy caused singularly little concern. But evidence of coming trouble had been abundant for some years before; indeed, since 1862 the bank's operations had consisted of little more than quiet liquidation with open doors. The immediate interest of the provincial government in the bank through the ownership of shares had ceased, of course, with the sale of those shares in 1840, but the prestige and dignity of a government connection persisted through more than twenty years. In 1850, moreover, the bank had managed anew to obtain the government account. The exclusive mark of confidence thus conferred probably served somewhat to exalt divers grandiose notions the management already entertained concerning their institution's policy, position, and strength. To the economic development of the western

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province which marked the early fifties, the extension of railways, to the increase of municipal indebtedness, to the expansion of milling properties, and, as appeared in the end, to the speculation in unimproved lands, the bank found both duty discharged and profit gained in lending ready aid. Lawyers, legislators, the gentry and professions, civil servants and politicians properly connected or properly introduced, were suffered participation in the banks' loan favors on the strength of mere accommodation paper, or on the ultimate and none too remote security of inflated real estate. Down to 1858, however, the bank had paid good dividends, although in calling up capital it had made repeatedly the mistake of distributing the premiums received on new as bonuses to holders of old stock. Considering the volume and character of their business, the management had consistently failed to build up an adequate surplus or rest.

With the great increase of railways in Canada West there came a shift of the routes of trade, no less than of the centers of the milling and lumber industry which made recovery from the crisis of 1857 slower in the older country, where the bank had long been established, than in the newer districts. The bank was sorely hit by the commercial failures of 1858; at the same time it found itself obliged to take possession of much depreciated real estate. One in particular of the larger transactions with railway obligations turned out badly to the tune of nearly half a million dollars. The sum of \$220,000 was appropriated for bad debts in 1858, one of \$400,000 in 1859, and \$294,000 in 1860. The bank was in such position that the government could not consider avail-

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able their credit balance, then considerably in excess of \$1,000,000. In 1861 a new manager was given charge of the bank. Upon his recommendation to the shareholders, a million and a quarter of bad debts still awaiting provision after the appropriation of all the rest, authority was obtained from parliament in 1862 to reduce the par value of the shares from \$50 to \$30, the paid-up stock from \$3,186,000 to something more than \$1,900,000.

The results of an official investigation of the finance department begun in 1862, determined the government of the day, then lately come into power, to shift the bank account of the province to the Bank of Montreal. The debt of the Bank of Upper Canada to the province by way of deposits was fixed at \$1,150,000 and transferred to a special account. The disclosures of the report and the further loss of standing caused by the transfer of the government account made the task of rehabilitating the bank hopeless. The dividend was passed in 1864 and 1865 and a steady, significant falling off appeared in the bank's return of circulation, deposits, and discounts. Authority for a further reduction of the stock to \$1,000,000 was obtained in August the following year, but before action could be taken upon this the bank was obliged to close its doors September 18, 1866.

When the estate was transferred to trustees in November the notes in circulation were reported at \$722,000; balances due other banks, \$299,000; deposits by the public, \$395,000, and deposits of the government, \$1,149,000. Specie had fallen to \$42,000, but the landed and other property of the bank amounted to \$1,673,000; securities, \$17,000; bills and judgments, \$2,225,000;

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bonds and mortgages, \$97,000. Liquidation of the estate was slow; for some obscure reason—ostensibly, to be sure, because it was thought necessary first to realize the assets—the double liability of the shareholders was not promptly enforced (in fact, it was never enforced); no creditor was paid in full; claims against the bank had to be or were taken at face value in settlement of debts due to it; the administration of trustees cost large sums; there was further depreciation in the real estate and doubtful debts. In 1870 the whole property was turned over to the Crown. The Crown redeemed liabilities at 75 cents on the dollar, but forbore to insist upon the Crown priority. In the end about \$1,000,000 of the sum due the province in 1866 proved a total loss. Apart from interest or from discounts suffered in realization upon claims before the liquidators were ready to pay, creditors of the bank among the Canadian public (exclusive of the government) lost rather more than \$300,000; the shareholders, all the stake they had in the bank.

One other of the Upper Canada banks, the Commercial Bank of Canada, first known as the Commercial Bank of the Midland District, failed in 1867. It had helped and to some extent had shared in the speculative movement prior to 1857, but when the crash came it was nowhere near so badly involved as the Bank of Upper Canada, and rallied quickly from the losses then suffered. Shortly after 1857, however, when the bank took over the account of the Great Western Railway from its old rival, it opened extensive cash credits toward the operation and construction of the Detroit and Milwaukee Railway,

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supposedly on the faith of £250,000 granted to this enterprise by the Great Western. The Great Western subsequently repudiated responsibility, and in 1862 the bank brought suit for considerably more than a million. No settlement was obtained until the fall of 1866, when \$1,770,000 Detroit and Milwaukee 7 per cent bonds were turned over to the bank. Instead of realizing upon these quickly, the bank waited and thus prolonged its lockup. Blind popular faith in banks had been shaken by the Upper Canada failure, and a proposal at the meeting in June, 1867, to reduce the capital stock by 25 per cent started a quiet but persistent withdrawal of the Commercial Bank's deposits. Help was had from another bank in September to the extent of \$300,000. A joint advance of \$750,000 was asked of its colleagues on October 21, with the idea that half this sum for four and half for six months would enable the bank to pull through. At a meeting held to consider this request, the banks could not agree as to the conditions of allotment and guaranty. The government were under pledge to extend no help without their bankers' consent, and on the morning of October 22 the Commercial Bank stopped payment. The company was really solvent at that time, but lacked ready cash. In a little more than two months note and deposit liability of \$2,786,000 out of total liabilities on this score of \$4,657,000 was paid in full. Seven months after the failure the shareholders ratified the contract by which the Merchants' Bank of Canada acquired their property, paying therefor at the rate of one share of Merchants' stock for every three of the Commercial Bank.

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In the twenty-six years between July 1, 1841, and July 1, 1867, the number of banks working under the laws of the Province of Canada was increased from 9 to 19; their capital paid up, including the capital of the British Bank employed in the Canadas, from \$9,106,548, or its equivalence in currency, to \$27,618,440. A total note circulation (exclusive of the provincial notes issued by one bank) of \$8,312,386 was reported in 1867 as against one of \$3,676,180 in 1841. Deposits not bearing interest and sums not otherwise specified due by the banks had grown from \$3,145,872 to \$13,938,447, deposits bearing interest from \$219,432 to \$14,765,879. Of the banks working under colonial charters in 1841 but one had a capital greater than \$800,000; in 1867 there was one with \$6,000,000 paid up; another with \$1,999,100; a third with \$1,600,000, and two others with \$1,200,000 or more. Excepting the largest bank, the four newest and smallest, and the Commercial Bank, then soon to fail, the average paid up capital of the 13 companies reporting was \$1,257,830. Deposits, which in 1841 were but 37 per cent of capital, had increased to slightly over 100 per cent of capital. In respect of circulation the change was in a contrary direction. The precise position is obscured in any return of the quarter century by the peculiarity of the practice or condition of the British Bank. Its note issue was regularly small compared to its capital stock. Banks acting under colonial charters generally showed a considerable reduction in the proportion of circulation either to capital or to total liabilities between 1841 and 1867. A summarized statement of the condition of the banks at ten-year intervals and for 1867 is printed in the table herewith:

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Statement of chartered banks in the Province of Canada.

LIABILITIES.

	a 1841.	b 1851.	c 1861.	d 1867.
Number of banks in operation.....	9	8	16	19
Capital stock authorized by act.....			\$35,266,666	\$37,466,666
Capital stock paid up.....	£2,276,637	£2,897,619	£24,410,796	£27,618,440
Promissory notes in circulation not bearing interest.....	919,045	1,623,435	11,780,364	8,312,386
Balances due to other banks.....	340,771	271,621	444,120	2,771,925
Dividends unpaid.....	21,025	933		
Net profits or contingent fund.....	146,410	59,845		
Cash deposits not bearing interest, and all sums not otherwise specified due by the banks.....	786,468	1,126,305	9,175,957	13,938,447
Cash deposits bearing interest.....	54,858	565,326	9,545,341	14,765,879
Total liabilities other than stock.....	2,268,577	3,741,757	30,945,341	39,788,638

ASSETS.

Coin, bullion, and provincial notes f.....	£392,540	£413,422	\$4,960,439	\$7,384,197
Landed or other property of the bank.....	46,101	135,313	1,429,324	1,510,572
Government securities.....	24,661	43,825	2,735,956	6,142,573
Promissory notes or bills of other banks.....	148,342	144,375	1,136,153	1,651,772
Balances due from other banks and foreign agencies.....	203,586	218,501	4,157,286	5,068,635
Notes and bills discounted.....	3,282,150	5,573,983	39,588,842	48,158,431
Other debts due to the bank not included under foregoing heads.....			4,064,389	2,297,414
Total assets.....	4,094,068	6,529,769	58,072,391	72,213,597

^a Journal, Can., 1841, Appendix O.

^b Journal, Can., 1851, Appendix I, No. 1 to 8 inclusive.

^c The Canada Gazette, Vol. XX, p. 1736.

^d The Canada Gazette, Vol. XXVI, p. 2245.

^e This includes £620,000 sterling, being the capital allotted by the Bank of British North America to its Canadian branches.

^f "Provincial notes" occurs only in the statement for 1867.

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Taken all in all, the twenty-six years under the union form a period of marked advance by the Canadian banks along the lines they were subsequently to follow in point of increased stability, greater versatility, and more thorough diversification of risks. Much, perhaps most of the the improvement was by way of internal organization, the multiplication of branch offices, the standardization of practice, and the elimination of methods and of business not now accounted commercial banking in the best sense of the term. Two world-wide and more or less disastrous financial and speculative upheavals had been weathered by the banks without suspension of payment, and indeed without failures whatsoever at the time stringency was most acute. Neither the collapse of the Bank of Upper Canada nor that of the Commercial Bank can be explained as ultimately due to anything but circumstances and proceedings, mistakes and misapprehensions, peculiar to the institutions directly involved. For contemporary critics, to be sure, both banks served as dire examples of the evils brought about by the existing system of bank regulation, and as pointed argument for revolutionary change. But the complaints of some such observers, certainly, were too often tinged by sympathy for the unfortunate holders of failed banks' shares. It is much to be doubted whether in the twenty-six years under review the public creditors of the Canadian banks lost half a million dollars all told.

Down to 1867 the deposit function was still of higher importance only in the cities and to the banks which served the wholesale, manufacturing, and financial communities in which cheques were used as means of pay-

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ment. Some growth of deposits came about in the rural districts after 1854 or 1855 when an increase of housebreaking in the country induced farmers somewhat to depart from their habit of hoarding notes. But in the western part of the province, where wheat and flour, timber and wool had to be moved each year, where the produce buyer, then as now, needed to pay for produce in cash, the note circulation was of predominant consequence. All kinds of business slackened considerably in the winter when the water routes of transportation were closed; many kinds of trade were much more active in September and October than at other seasons of the year. Hence a wide and regular expansion of the note issues in the autumn to the highest volume of the twelvemonth; hence a rapid contraction in the early winter which persisted until the low point was reached again in May. Increased provision for borrowers' needs was furnished by the banks without other cost than paying out notes. There was no occasion to import coin or other valuable money from without the district where the augmented demand for credit appeared; no necessity to call up additional capital to supply a demand for loans which endured but fourth, a third, or at most but half of a year. It was a cheap currency, this issue against general assets; but without the profits of issue, borrowers in the western country would have had to pay more for their credits, or, in many cases, to contrive to manage in their neighborhood without a bank. It was a currency of wide and comparatively rapid fluctuations in volume, as the lords of the British treasury had remarked from time to time with every sign of concern. But in an economy

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such as the Province of Canada then had, or as the Dominion has to-day, a fluctuating currency is precisely what the country wants.

The filling up of the Mississippi Valley and the growth of population in New York, the increase of export and import trade with Great Britain which marked the fifties, the influx of foreign capital into the colony, the reciprocity treaty with the United States, these were all productive of a much larger business in exchange than any which had previously engaged the attention of the Canadian banks. Prior to the suspension of specie payments in the States, following the outbreak of civil war, the Canadian banks enjoyed a considerable circulation south of the frontier. In the earliest sixties they participated, in no small way, in moving the American crops. A number of the larger banks, through agents at first, afterwards by direct representation, traded in specie and exchange in New York, where two of them became leaders in the market for gold and sterling bills. In Canada itself, moreover, there had already begun that connection with railway enterprise, municipal borrowings, and extensive joint-stock projects—not always felicitous beginnings, to be sure—which later was to constitute the more or less typical Canadian corporation of this sort, a financial as well as a commercial bank.

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IV.—THE FIRST BANK ACT OF THE DOMINION.

Under the British North America act passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1867, and the confederation of the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, which this measure brought about, the parliament of the new Dominion was given exclusive authority in all matters pertaining to currency and coinage, banking, the incorporation of banks and of the issue of paper money, savings banks, bills of exchange and promissory notes, interest and legal tender. Subject to this jurisdiction, directly the act came into force, therefore, were the 18 banks chartered by Canada (thereafter divided into Ontario and Quebec), 5 by Nova Scotia, 4 by New Brunswick, and 1 working in all the colonies under royal charter, but obligated to accept such general regulations as the Dominion might impose. The banking legislation of the maritime provinces, though often different in phrase and sometimes in detail from that of Canada, was based upon substantially identical principles. The chief contrasts between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick banks on the one side, and those of Canada on the other, lay in the small capitals of the maritime province banks, and in their tendency to confine their operations to restricted fields. The total paid-up capital at the moment of confederation, including the bank with the royal charter among those of Ontario and Quebec, was for these two provinces, \$29,467,773; for

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Nova Scotia, \$1,552,389; for New Brunswick, \$1,480,000; for the whole Dominion, \$32,499,162. Granted prior to confederation and not yet used, but not yet forfeited for nonuser, were 3 charters passed by the Province of Canada, 2 by Nova Scotia, and 5 by New Brunswick. Of the banks already in operation, 17 charters were to expire by July 1, 1871.

In the first session of the new parliament little was done by way of general legislation affecting banks. True, the eleventh chapter of the first volume of Dominion Statutes is an "Act respecting Banks" (31 Vict., c. 11), but it merely extended the powers of banks previously incorporated by any of the provinces to the Dominion, subjected the banks of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to the circulation tax, and reenacted for the whole country such general legislation in respect of banks as was then on the books of the Province of Canada. One of the more important of these paragraphs empowered banks to hold and dispose of mortgages taken as additional security for debts contracted in the usual course of their business, to purchase and to hold lands thus mortgaged to them, to bid in lands auctioned at their suit, and acquire absolute title therein, to act on power of sale, and the like. Other sections dealt with loans upon warehouse receipts, bills of lading, and the like, taken as security at the time of negotiating the loan, and the prior lien accorded to the lending bank against the unpaid vendor of the commodities involved. The banks generally were exempted from penalties for usury, though not permitted to recover at law a higher rate than 7 per cent, and were specifically permitted collection and agency charges not to exceed

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one-half of 1 per cent upon notes payable at places other than that at which the loan was made.

In 1868, again, a further extension of the laws of the Province of Canada was undertaken in a measure which declared the provincial notes of 1866 to be Dominion notes for which the Dominion alone was responsible, and continued the provisions first enacted in respect of this issue. Authority was also given for the establishment of branches of the receiver-general's department in Montreal, Toronto, Halifax, and St. John for the issue and redemption of the Dominion notes. Until the unification of the currencies, notes payable in Halifax were to be issued at the rate of \$5 the pound sterling, and to be legal tender only in Nova Scotia (31 Vict., c. 46). The last of the preliminary legislation extended the charters of 11 of the Province of Canada banks to the end of the first session of parliament after January 1, 1870. (32-33 Vict., c. 49.)

For what he had done or had omitted to do in connection with the provincial note issue and the failure of the Commercial Bank, A. T. Galt, the first finance minister of the new Dominion, received a deal of blame. He felt that public opinion held him responsible to some extent for the losses suffered by investors in consequence of that failure. His usefulness being thus marred, he resigned from the ministry early in November, 1867. Under his successor, John Rose, reports upon the banking system of the country were presented by select committees both of the Senate and of the House. That of the Senate committee condemned the provincial note act in set terms and recommended a return to the conditions obtaining prior to 1866. The committee were further of the opinion,

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however, that if the government were determined by some new system somehow to take possession of the currency of the country, such a change, which the committee strongly deprecated, should be in the direction of a paper currency based on Dominion securities, but immediately redeemable on demand, like the national-bank notes of the United States.

The first report of the house committee submitted to the Commons in the session of 1868-9, consisted merely of the answers to a series of questions drawn up with the evident view of eliciting evidence favorable to the introduction of bond-secured bank notes. Among these queries, for example, was one concerning the expediency of issuing government paper; another related to the practicability and advantage of introducing a system of banks issuing currency based on deposits of government securities analogous to the American system. Notwithstanding the manifest bias of the committee the inquiry was given a wide scope, some of the questions calling for comment upon the past services of existing banks and their present practice and business; others still for discussion of the defects of the system and the means of improving it. Twenty-two sets of answers appeared in the report, 11 of them from the principal executives of chartered banks.

The weight of the evidence thus collected was against the issue of a government currency and against the issue of bank notes upon special security. Four main objections were offered to the American plan of protecting holders of bank notes; first, the reduction of the loan fund involved in the purchase of the necessary bonds; second, the tendency under such a plan to permit and even to

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encourage the organization of small local banks with a consequent lessening of the stability of the banking system; third, the lack of elasticity of bond-secured issues, the deficient force of the motives acting upon the issuers either to expand or to contract the circulation in full and automatic accord with the needs of trade; and fourth, the probability that, with only a comparatively expensive currency available for agricultural loans, such credits would be reduced, and numbers of offices in the country districts closed up.

Certain objections to the existing system turned upon the lack of any requirement to hold a minimum fixed proportion of cash against liabilities on notes and deposits; others, again, upon the failure of the traditional scheme of regulation to conform to theories derived from the doctrine that the right to furnish currency is originally a right of the State, or the faith sometimes based upon this doctrine that money may be and ought to be made by the fiat of the State. The valuable constructive criticism, however, consisted chiefly of these suggestions of particulars in which bank charters might be improved:

“(a) To establish a minimum capital to be required from newly chartered banks, and to limit the number of branches in proportion to the paid-up capital stock.

“(b) To prevent the beginning of business until a certain part of the capital stock is paid up, held in specie, and the fact certified to by a government officer.

“(c) To make the double liability available in case of need within a reasonable period, by assessment of shareholders for the deficiency at the end of, say, six months after suspension, and by provision that the subsequent

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proceeds form the dividend of the shareholders, rather than the creditors.

“(d) To make transfers within three months of the suspension, and at any time thereafter, void.

“(e) To require such statements of accounts as would check illegitimate operations.

“(f) To prohibit any but moderate dividends till a reserve fund should be accumulated, such to be made good if impaired.

“(g) To make circulation a first charge upon the assets of an insolvent bank.

“(h) To prohibit the issue of notes for less than \$4.

“(i) To require a certain proportion of demand liabilities to be held in specie, say, 20 per cent.

“(j) To limit the circulation to paid-up capital stock and government securities, and provide that any excess should be covered by specie in hand over and above the amount required to fulfill the previous recommendations.

“(k) To require each half year the publication of a certified list of the shareholders.

“(l) To prohibit the reduction of capital stock, and to compel the stockholders to make good the capital if it should be impaired.”

What the new minister of finance offered Parliament in the way of a banking policy was rather a ready-made scheme than a project founded upon the recommendations of the experts who testified to the committee of the house. The resolutions presented to the Commons in May, 1869, called for the reconstruction of Dominion bank legislation upon the model of the “national bank act” of the United States. In substance it was identically the proposal put

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forward by E. H. King, the general manager, and approved by the board of the Bank of Montreal in November, 1867. In the memorandum describing his plans this officer had declared the belief "that the interests of the country will be best served by the diffusion of banking interests in different localities, leaving to the greater banks, in large measure, the care of the mercantile and foreign trade of the country, and to the lesser, in their own districts, the care and support of local enterprise." Then followed the plan to deprive the banks of the power of the issue against their general credit, to permit the issue only of notes prepared by the Government and turned over to the banks only on deposit of equivalent amounts of bonds; to permit the foundation in each county of a local bank with small capital, and to provide for recurring needs for expansion of the currency by requiring maximum deposits of bonds as note security, and by periodically moving the currency from east to west as in the United States. Among the bankers of the time, responsibility for the preparation of the government's project was commonly imputed, probably with ample basis of fact, not to John Rose, the minister of finance, but to the chief executive of the government's bankers and fiscal agents, E. H. King.

Apart from the limitation of issue to notes secured by pledge of Dominion securities with the government, and the provision that no bank should issue in excess of its paid-up capital stock, the resolutions carried the proposals, first, that so long as they were redeemed in specie, such notes should be a legal tender throughout the country except at the office of the issuing bank and at a

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redemption agency to be established in Montreal or in the capital city of the province in which the bank was situate; second, that banks should maintain reserves of specie equal to one-fifth their note issue and one-seventh of their deposits at call; and, third, that notes should be the first charge upon the estate of a failed bank; deposits at call, not bearing interest, the second charge. Further proposals concerned the continuance of sundry safeguards already in force or the adoption of others suggested by bankers whose testimony was before the House. If approved the plan was not to go into effect until July 1, 1871.

In the speech with which he brought the resolutions down, the minister put most stress upon the duty of the Government "to see that the circulation which the public at large is bound to take should be placed on as sound and uniform a basis as possible." "It is of essential importance to the interests of the country," he argued, "that the circulating medium be placed on a sound and uniform basis." There, undoubtedly, the minister touched upon one of the weak points of the note circulation as it then was. Notes were not of uniform value the country through. A note was payable, under the law, only at the place or office where it was dated. One branch sometimes accepted in payment the notes of another branch of the same bank, but merely as a matter of courtesy, not as of right. Bank notes circulating in districts at all remote from the place of date and issue were subject to a discount. As a rule Montreal notes would pass at par in Toronto, but that was because the exchange was in favor of the eastern city. Toronto notes would not

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ordinarily be worth their face in Montreal. Furthermore, the course of the paper involved by the two most recent bank failures had shown that, quite apart from questions of ultimate security, the immediate redemption of bank notes in all circumstances was not yet fully assured.

But whatever the defects of the existing system, it soon became clear that the community was too well content with sundry patent advantages peculiar to banks of the Canadian type, lightly or willingly to suffer a revolutionary change. The appearance of the resolutions precipitated a storm of criticism, objection, and protest. Indeed, already in April, the banks of Ontario and Quebec had adopted resolutions against any fundamental changes in the system, and for the preservation of the note circulation as it was. Naturally neither the Bank of Montreal nor the Bank of British North America, both of whose chief executives favored bond-secured issues, subscribed to these resolutions. Halifax banks declared the existing system was satisfactory and that change was neither asked for nor desired. Over 70 petitions "that the circulation of the banks be preserved on substantially the present basis" or that "no changes of a fundamental character be made in the present system of banking," petitions from boards of trade and the leading towns and cities, as well as from 10 of the banks, were presented to the Commons in the spring of 1869.

Opposition of a determined and significant character also developed in the House itself. The expansion of the note issue each fall was effected mostly in Ontario, and in Ontario's behalf. Ontario was in no wise ready forthwith to share the profits of crop moving with the east, or to

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conduct that operation with less expedition or greater expense. It was felt, too, that the province needed all the resources of credit already at its command. Even if the change to specially-secured notes was to be gradual and requirement of a fixed reserve in specie delayed until 1871, it was asserted, with every show of reason, that rising eight millions would be needed to put the banks in as good case as under issue against their general credit. That sacrifice would be independent of the loss of cheap till money, and of the possibility of maintaining country branches at low cost, which would follow the shift to issue against deposits of bonds.

Only one day's debate, that of June 1, 1869, was devoted to the resolutions in the House of Commons. Pronounced hostility to the proposals was shown not only by the Opposition but by Ontario members generally, and by some of the staunchest supporters of the government. It was known that the Senate was even less likely than the Commons to favor this scheme. On June 2, the resolutions were considered by the Cabinet, with what degree of unanimity was not disclosed. The project lost rather than gained in favor the following fortnight. On June 15, the finance minister announced that the government was willing temporarily to withdraw the proposals but would bring them before the House for consideration the following session. But before the following session was opened the Hon. John Rose, believing that the rejection of his banking policy was definitive, gave up his portfolio. With his withdrawal from the ministry there vanished any immediate prospect that the banking

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system of the country would be recast upon American lines.

Sir Francis Hincks, for fifteen years in the British colonial service, and but then lately returned to Canada, succeeded Mr. Rose as minister of finance. Whatever the preconceptions or preferences of the new minister in respect of banking or currency, he seems to have set to work to form new conclusions concerning current needs upon the basis of the facts at hand. After numerous conferences with bankers, merchants, and publicists, and after careful study of existing legislation, Sir Francis formulated measures which, though intended to put the banking of the country upon a safe and stable basis, yet introduced no radical departure from the system to which the Dominion was used. The proposed legislation was brought before Parliament early in the session of 1870.

In presenting his proposals to the House, the minister pointed out that sufficient need for a uniform and general banking law applicable to the whole Dominion was indicated as well by the number of charters about to expire as by the application for new ones already presented. Further, recent experience showed that the holders of bank notes should be given greater security. Used as the people were, however, to advances of credit in the form of notes, it was inexpedient to force the cover of the currency by deposit of government securities, and cause such advances to be reduced or withdrawn. Public opinion, finally, was against the establishment of a bank of issue such as had been proposed some thirty years before.

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The main purposes of the bill submitted by the minister and with slight changes of detail accepted by the House, may be summed up thus (33 Vict., c. XI):

First. To require the security of a large paid-up capital. It was first proposed to insist upon \$1,000,000 authorized stock, all to be paid up within five years, but in deference to the needs of the maritime provinces, the minimum authorized capital was cut to \$500,000, with \$200,000 paid in before the beginning of business and 20 per cent each year thereafter. Certification of the fact of the first payment was required from the treasury board.

Second. To restrict the circulation of the banks to notes of \$4 and upward. What the banks gave up here they gained in exemption from the circulation tax and from the obligation to invest a tenth of their paid-up stock in government securities. The government, on their side, wanted the room made by the retirement of small bank issues for the circulation of \$1 and \$2 Dominion notes.

Third. To oblige every bank to receive its own notes in payment at any of its offices, and thereby somewhat to reduce the discount upon notes circulating remote from their place of date. Notes were to be payable, however, only where they were expressly made payable, one of which places was always to be the principal office of the bank.

Fourth. To extend the circulation, or rather the amount outstanding, of Dominion notes by obliging each bank to hold usually half and not less than one-third of its cash reserve in Dominion notes. In so far as such notes held by the banks were not covered by specie, this provision

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had all the air of a forced loan. The minister did not deny that the step was one of fiscal expediency rather than bank reform. At the same time the complaints of the Opposition that the proposal unduly diminished the country's gold reserve, that it involved the borrowing of a large sum practically at call, and that it was of objectionable morality in a political sense, were calmly waved aside. Sir Francis felt obliged "to contend in the interests of the public at large that they were entitled to some share in the profits of the circulation."

Fifth. To prohibit loans by a bank on its own stock, saving its lien upon the shares and unpaid dividends of its debtors on overdue debts.

Sixth. To prevent the impairment of paid-up capital by undue division of profits. Directors concurring in such impairment were to be individually liable as for debts due the bank. With the intent to forestall applications for reductions on account of losses, it was further provided that capital lost should be made up forthwith by calls upon the unpaid portions of shareholders' subscriptions and by the application of all net profits.

Seventh. To keep dividends within bounds until the bank should accumulate a rest or reserve fund. Taking a lesson from the extravagant policy of the Bank of Upper Canada, Parliament forbade dividend or bonus in excess of 8 per cent per annum until the rest or surplus of a bank, after deduction of all bad or doubtful debts, should equal 20 per cent of the paid-up capital stock.

Eighth. To penalize the bank for suspension of the payment of any of its liabilities, continuing for ninety

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days, by forfeiture of its charter, except for the purpose of making certain calls and of winding up its business.

Ninth. To make the liability of shareholders to the amount of their subscriptions and to an equal amount in addition certainly available and effective. Directors were empowered to enforce this liability to the extent deemed necessary without waiting for the collection of debts to the bank or the sale of its property. Calls for not more than 20 per cent at intervals of not less than thirty days or on less than thirty days' notice became mandatory so soon as a suspension had continued for six months. Shareholders defaulting lost all claim in the estate of the bank without preventing the recovery of the calls. By this provision, likewise suggested by the recent failure, it was expected to shift the burden of waiting for dividends from the creditors to the shareholders of a failed bank. Further, to safeguard such creditors, the liability of the transferor of bank shares, the transfer of which should be registered within thirty days prior to a suspension, was continued, saving his recourse, of course, against the transferee.

Tenth. To give shareholders the right to cast in the meetings of the bank each as many votes as he had held shares for three months prior to the meeting.

Eleventh. To require that directors should each hold of the stock of the bank not less than \$3,000 when paid-up capital was \$1,000,000, not less than \$4,000 when the capital was \$1,000,000 to \$3,000,000, and not less than \$5,000 when the capital was over \$3,000,000; to empower shareholders to regulate by by-law the qualification and

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number of directors, which should be not less than 5 nor more than 10, the method of filling vacancies occurring between annual meetings, and the remuneration of the president, vice-president, and directors; finally, to continue the restriction of directors' discounts, whether for themselves or for firms in which they might be partners, to one-twentieth of the total discounts of the bank.

Twelfth. To require the transmission of certified lists of shareholders, showing their residences and their holdings, to the minister of finance each year.

Thirteenth. So to amend and expand the monthly return to the government that the condition and character of each bank's assets and liabilities could be better understood. Thus the new schedule contained a special heading for government deposits, whether payable on demand or after notice; on the assets side, separate headings for loans to the government, overdue discounts not specially secured, overdue debts secured and for real estate, other than bank premises, and mortgages on real estate sold by the bank.

Fourteenth. To constitute the making of willfully false returns, and the giving of an unfair or undue preference to any creditor of a bank, misdemeanors, the guilty persons being further held responsible for all damages sustained by those whom they set about to injure or to deceive.

Fifteenth. To provide for the extension of existing bank charters, with amendments embodying the foregoing provisions, by a species of letters patent, which would be

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issued by the governor in council upon a favorable report from the minister of justice and the treasury board.^a

Further provisions limited to chartered banks the issue of notes intended for circulation by a penalty upon unauthorized issue of \$400 for every offense, forbade the issue of notes for less than \$4, applied all pertinent clauses of the measure to the bank acting under royal charter and to the bank of the principal partners *en commandite*, and continued the bank charters then in force to January 1, 1872.

Contrary to the minister's first suggestion, new banks were not allowed to come into existence, as old ones were to be continued, by letters patent. Parliament refused to give this element of its jurisdiction up. Neither were the banks required to keep cash in reserve in an amount equal to at least a fixed proportion of their liabilities. Sir Francis Hincks had favored this requirement at first, and a few of the bankers took the same view. But the argument against the theory of a fixed reserve offered by most of the bankers, in conference with the minister during the preparation of the resolutions, was strong enough to persuade him to abandon it. Much could be said, and in fact was said, in favor of making its notes a first charge upon the assets of an insolvent bank. The possibility that depositors might start runs in order to convert ordinary into preferred claims seemed to Sir Francis to jeopardize the stability of the banks, and accordingly he rejected the proposal of a noteholder's prior lien.

^a The treasury board is a commission consisting of the minister of finance and any five of the other members of the privy council. The minister of finance is the treasurer, and has as assistant a deputy minister to whom most of the routine is intrusted. (Rev. Stats. of Canada, 1906, chap. 23.)

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Obliging the banks to use government paper for a good proportion of their reserves was only one way in which the finance minister proposed to invade what champions of the banking interest were pleased to consider vested rights. Another limb of his policy was considerably to augment the general circulation of Dominion notes. By canceling the privilege of bank issue under \$4 a further certainty of markedly wider use for the legal-tender paper was established. The minister took care to have the power to meet such demands ready at hand. The arrangement for issue and redemption by one of the chartered banks, in force since 1866, was brought to an end, and the management of the government circulation turned over to officers of the government. Authority was taken to establish offices for issue and redemption—branches of the receiver-general's department—in the provincial capitals, and to increase the whole issue, by not more than a million at a time, at intervals of not less than three months, to the total of \$9,000,000. Against this the act (33 Vic., c. 9) ordained that the receiver-general should hold specie and Dominion debentures to the amount of the circulation outstanding—debentures not to exceed 80 per cent of the circulation; the specie, as a rule, to be equal to 25 per cent of the debentures (20 per cent of the circulation) and never less than 15 per cent. Issues in excess of \$9,000,000 were to be covered by specie, dollar for dollar, and of notes so covered the issue to any quantity necessary might be undertaken.

So far as circumstances permitted, the measure "to regulate the issue of Dominion notes," was meant to reproduce in Canada, the issue department of the Bank

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of England, in all that department's essential principles of organization and work. Sir Francis Hincks believed "that the functions of the issue department should be automatically confined to the exchange of gold for notes and vice versa; that an amount can be established which may, with perfect safety, be issued upon public securities, and all beyond that fixed amount in gold." Under pressure of political exigency, excess of issue over \$9,000,000 was permitted in 1872, against gold holdings of but 35 per cent. (35 Vic., c. 7.) The Liberals, newly come into power in 1875, changed the rule to 50 per cent in gold for the amounts outstanding between \$9,000,000 and \$12,000,000, and dollar for dollar against circulation in excess of \$12,000,000. (38 Vic., c. 5.) As the area of the Dominion extended, additional branch offices of the receiver-general's department were opened in Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, and Manitoba. In 1880 the limit of issue against specie and debentures was extended to \$20,000,000 and the specie reserve required against anything less than that sum reduced to 15 per cent, cover for another 10 per cent of the circulation, however, being stipulated in the form of debentures of the Dominion guaranteed by the government of the United Kingdom. (43 Vic., c. 13.) Thirteen years later, an act of 1903 once more increased the amount but partly to be covered by specie to \$30,000,000. (3 Edw. VII, c. 43.) In later years the government has held gold in amounts generally equal to, and sometimes greater than, the quantity of Dominion notes in the reserves of the banks. No serious practical inconvenience has been caused by the legislation in the shape it was given under Sir Francis

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Hincks, while the treasury has gained considerably from the privilege of providing the small notes needed by the country at only nominal cost. With the chartered institutions furnishing the fluctuating volume of issues of larger denominations, and the government the small change from \$1 upward, Canada has presented, since confederation, rather an exceptional example of the concurrent circulation of currencies regulated by the antagonistic theories of the banking principle and of the currency school.

Further to increase the Dominion's command of ready funds, the minister of finance, and parliament with him, decided in 1871 to take over the government savings banks and savings banks authorized to invest their deposits only in government securities, which had been established prior to confederation in the maritime provinces and to provide for the opening of additional offices. At the same time changes were made in the regulations governing the post-office savings banks, authorized in 1867. Henceforward the receipts of these offices, as well as those of the government savings banks, were to be paid into the consolidated revenue fund, and payments which might be demanded from such offices were to be made out of that fund. No arrangement for a reserve, nor for the investment of deposits in securities was provided for either sort of bank. In the administration of its own savings banks, or of the post-office savings banks, the government took no particular care to limit the advantages of this service to the needy and uninformed. The interest paid was so high (4 per cent until 1889, and then $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent until 1897) and the limit put upon

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individual deposits so generous that for rising thirty years the chartered banks found the government one of their strongest competitors, as well for more or less permanent deposits at interest, as for saving deposits in the stricter sense of the term.

In the form it finally took, the bank act of 1870 was not acceptable to the banks. The provisions for continuing by letters patent the corporate life of banks whose charters were about to expire was an innovation to which the grant of charter by Parliament was preferred. Inasmuch as but one bank had taken advantage of the measure passed the preceding session, the ministry determined early in 1871 to draft a new law, "a general banking act, which would embody, not only the provisions of the previous act of the last session, but also the general provisions of what might be termed the internal regulations of banks." In this the bank charters were to be extended for ten years.

The measure thus described, a document of some seventy-seven sections and twenty three pages, became, when passed, the first bank act of the Dominion under which the banks actually worked. (34 Vic., c. 5.) Only a few changes were made in the new provisions enacted the preceding year. One such change—it can scarcely be called an improvement—relaxed the requirement of a large paid-up capital as a security to the public creditors of a bank. The least authorized and subscribed capital on which a bank might start operations was left as before at \$500,000, but the new bank might now open for business with only \$100,000 paid up, the payment of a further sum of \$100,000, however, being required within two

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years. The provisions regarding loans upon warehouse receipts and similar documents, in one aspect really matters of commercial law, but now, as in previous legislation, developed as bank law, were revised and amended. The double purpose of these changes was to simplify procedure and to extend the application of the statutes permitting loans on the security of commodities stored and awaiting sale, or on the way to market, passing into, out of or through the country or in process of conversion from the raw state to finished manufactured product. One short declaratory clause, struck out in 1879 (42 Vic., c. 45) after convincing experience of its pernicious possibilities, permitted a bank to lend upon the collateral security of the shares of any other bank. The prohibition against lending on the banks' own shares was retained, and in 1875, made still more severe by clauses forbidding banks to trade or to deal in its own stock. In other particulars, the new law presented no departure in principle from the general measure passed the year before. For the purposes of closer examination, however, the document is presented in full in Appendix 1.

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V.—LEGISLATION AND DEVELOPMENT, 1867-1890.

From the date of confederation to the 1st of January, 1890, the number of banks under Dominion jurisdiction increased from 28 to 38; their paid-up capital from \$32,500,000 to \$60,289,910; circulation from \$10,102,439 to \$33,577,700; total liabilities, other than capital and rest, from \$44,548,376 to \$171,684,322; and their total assets from \$80,722,834 to \$252,166,623. The periods of most rapid growth were 1869-1873 and 1880-1883. There was little rally from the stagnation of the middle eighties prior to 1888.

Adequately to set forth the reasons for the fluctuating fortunes of the banks in this period, or to explain the forces making for the marked expansion of the decade 1898-1907, is decidedly the task of the economic historian. To separate the story of the growth of a group of banks in point of profit or resources, or even of variety of business, from that of the agricultural, industrial, commercial, and financial progress of the community from which the banks draw their gains, is scarcely practicable here. Comprehensively to set forth the intimacy of the connection of individual banks with certain industries, or groups of industries, or with certain sections of the country, even in the case of banks so catholic in their choice of business and of scene as the Canadian banks have come to be, involves too many *personalia*, too great an abundance of minute detail. So far as the first great

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expansion of 1869-1873 is concerned it is not clear that the Canadian economy was under influences essentially different from those which brought about the tremendous increase of trade and speculation which preceded the crisis of 1873 in other parts of the commercial world.

Contemporary observers called the period, and rightly, "an era of remarkable prosperity." Swift advance was the characteristic condition in almost every direction. Thus the Dominion government was able between 1867 and 1874 to increase the public debt from \$93,000,000 to \$141,000,000; the federal revenue from \$13,600,000 to \$24,200,000; total exports, \$57,000,000 in 1868, rose to \$89,000,000 in 1873-74; imports in the like period, from \$73,000,000 to \$128,000,000. Between 1870 and 1875 the railways of the country were extended from 2,497 to 4,826 miles. Upon the Intercolonial road there were spent some fifteen and a half millions. Railway construction and building operations at home, and the insistent demand for products of the forest abroad, greatly enhanced the value of all kinds of timber, with the ultimate effect of attracting excessive investment in the lumber industry and of inflating the value of timber limits and timbered land. Under the stimulus of the prospective cheapening of freights, and of the sanguine confidence with which men generally viewed the future, there were large and sometimes more or less extravagant projects of manufacture floated, artificial impulse being supplied in many cases by the disposition of municipalities liberally to bonus incoming concerns. Easy money and what were read as certain signs of enduring possibilities of profit, combined to assure a ready welcome for promotions of joint stock companies, and

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especially of those devoted to financial and public-service schemes. Greater still, perhaps, was the influx of capital, and rather too often of credit, into a wide variety of commercial endeavor. Long time accorded wholesalers by the English export houses, liberal terms passed on by these to retail traders, and granted with a deal of carelessness concerning the record or sagacity of the recipients of credit, prepared the way for widespread embarrassment when the power or disposition of the consumer to maintain purchases at boom volume suddenly fell off.

While the country prospered, the banks fared well. With the great advances making in manufacture, transportation, and general trade, and with millions of bank capital struck off the provision of Ontario by the failures of 1866 and 1867, there naturally appeared a call for more facilities from the borrowers' side, and, from the investors' view, an opportunity for additional banks. What followed justifies the inclusion of bank expansion, whether in point of number or of apparent resources, among the most conspicuous of all the speculative growths of the period. Beginning in May, 1868, the movement for new banks continued until June, 1874, with the result that no less than 28 projects were carried to the point of obtaining incorporation from Parliament. Nine of these charters were forfeited for nonuser, but by the end of 1874 the number of new banks opened for business in this term had risen to 19.

Larger and more rapid than any additions due to new ventures, however, was the increase of banking capital effected by the older banks through calling up new shares. In this same term, when \$31,000,000 net, or more than

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\$34,000,000 gross, were added to the paid-up capital stock of the Canadian system, half the sum was provided by three of the banks established prior to confederation. Twenty others of the older banks added some eleven millions to capital in blocks of from one to eleven hundred thousand each. In a little more than seven years the capital invested under Dominion regulation was doubled. Total liabilities were nearly trebled, having been increased from \$44,500,000 to \$126,000,000; total assets from about \$80,000,000 to more than \$200,000,000. The increase of bank capital continued for some time after the beginning of the general reaction which followed the panic and crisis in the United States. Figures for paid-up stock came close to the high point of the thirty-three years, 1867-1899, in June, 1876, when 41 banks reported \$67,-199,051. In so far as there had been speculation in bank shares upon borrowed funds, there was an element of artificiality in this increase. Loans upon the collateral security of shares of other banks were reported for a total of \$3,813,000 in December, 1873, and at \$5,308,000 a year later. How much surreptitious lending there was by each upon its own shares, a practice in which some of the banks had certainly engaged, the return to the government does not reveal. As late as 1890 the banks were faring comfortably with \$6,000,000, in round numbers, less paid-up stock than they nominally had in 1876. That once well started, the movement was pushed to excess seems beyond question, but justification for a good part of the expansion could be derived from the development of the banks' business. Thus their note issues practically trebled in volume between 1868 and 1873

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(December), the rise being from \$10,157,483 to \$29,016,659, while notes and bills discounted increased in the same time from \$54,899,000 to \$131,996,000.

However reckless, however frenzied, the fashion in which the future had been discounted, the records of the time seem to show little in the trade or banking situation of Canada, in the latter part of 1873, wholly parallel to the American crisis of that year. In the strict sense of the term, Canada suffered no panic. Money became scarcer and dearer, a deep depression of the timber market began as early as June, and, except in the grain business, which was helped by good English demand, a general slackening of trade occurred. Through 1874, the effort to restrict accommodation was hampered by the necessity of supporting many debtors whose assets were likely to prove deficient, if realization were forced forthwith. It was not until 1875 that the stringency was generally felt in the fullest force. Early in that year a heavy contraction occurred in both the circulation and deposits of the banks, but although the drain reached \$12,500,000 in three months, total discounts were reduced by scarcely 2 per cent. Failures for \$28,843,000 occurred in Canada in 1875, or in twice the number and for nearly four times the liabilities of the year before. The period of readjustment was long; the recovery exceedingly slow. Just when normal conditions were restored would be hard to determine; little marked improvement in business appeared before the fall of 1879. Meanwhile, not only in the carrying trade, in the lumber and timber industries, and in retail trade, where many of the gravest excesses had occurred, but also in the coal, cotton, salt, and slate

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industries, the process of sanitation was proving difficult and costly for those immediately concerned. At the same time it was expensive for the banks. In December, 1874, their current loans were reported at \$139,379,000; four years later at \$97,603,688; the circulation on like dates fell from \$29,000,000 to \$22,000,000. Notwithstanding all that was written off in these trying years, unsecured overdue debts rose from \$1,494,000 to \$2,921,000, while overdue debts secured by real estate were doubled, and the holdings of real estate, other than bank premises, increased from \$575,499 to \$2,383,474.

By way of reductions of capital stock, amalgamations in which proprietaries of one or both banks took new stock of less value than the par of their old, or by voluntary liquidation, seven banks effected, independently of anything written off their surplus funds or rests, a diminution of the paid-up banking capital of Canada amounting to \$6,500,000 between 1875 and 1880. La Banque Jacques Cartier reduced its capital from \$2,000,000 to \$500,000; the Merchants Bank of Canada from nearly \$9,000,000 to a little over \$6,000,000; the St. Lawrence Bank, changing its name to the Standard Bank, reduced its stock by about \$150,000. The Metropolitan Bank of Montreal, with a capital of \$800,170, went into voluntary liquidation in 1876, the shareholders eventually receiving about 57 per cent upon the par value of the stock. Stockholders of the Stadacona Bank, who decided on like action in 1880, recovered the full face value of their shares. In 1875 the Bank of the Niagara District was amalgamated with the Imperial Bank, and in 1876 the Royal Canadian with the City Bank, the corporation thus formed being renamed

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the Consolidated Bank. In these two cases, however, there appears to have been no noteworthy lessening of the capitalization involved. The market course of bank shares, and the hardships suffered by shareholders in the period of contraction may be judged by estimates of the depreciation in the value of bank stock, made at the time. In 1879 Sir Francis Hincks reckoned the shrinkage of five years at nothing less than \$25,000,000. If account were taken merely of what appeared in the government return, or in the annual balance sheets, the calculation of the changes in the par value of paid-up stocks and surplus funds or rests would show shareholders' losses of practically \$12,000,000 on this score alone.

Such figures of course include allowance for capital sunk in banks which failed. Of downright failures there were three. Three other banks stopped payment in the spring or summer of 1879, but were enabled to resume operations in time to save their charters. The worst of the failures, whether in point of liabilities or creditors' losses, was that of the Mechanics' Bank of Montreal. Suspended for three months in 1875, it had managed, by a reduction of capital amounting to 60 per cent and more and by subscriptions to new stock, to get once more on its feet. But it found little, if any, support in reputable business circles. In the difficult period succeeding 1876 its discount business shrank to an inconsiderable volume of undesirable loans, while its circulation, much larger in proportion to capital than that of the other Montreal banks, was kept out only by improper and illegal means. After the failure, solvent shareholders were called upon for the whole of their double liability, but even with what this added to the estate

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neither note holders nor other creditors received more than 57½ per cent of their claims. At the final suspension the total liabilities, exclusive of stock, were \$547,238. Independently of interest losses the public lost some \$240,000 by the collapse. So many of its obligations were in the form of notes, and held by those who could ill afford to lose, that the possibilities demonstrated by the Mechanics' failure aroused general indignation and concern.

The failure of the Bank of Liverpool was different, in this wise; that its note issue was small and appears to have been redeemed rather promptly by that bank, the chief creditor of the one in default, which bought the Liverpool's assets. The Dominion government's claim was \$84,996, that of other banks \$35,000, and of the public \$12,671. After long litigation the double liability was enforced against the shareholders and about 96 per cent distributed upon the liabilities at the time of failure—\$136,480. The Consolidated Bank, although in August, 1879, it also had become bankrupt, was wound up with less discredit than either of the other two. Eventually both notes and deposits were paid in full, and enough was saved from the wreck to divide among its proprietors about 23 per cent of the par value of a stock reduced from the original sum by 40 per cent. While shareholders sunk more than \$3,000,000 in this venture, the public loss was limited to such discounts as were taken on claims by notes or deposits between the time of suspension and the time the liquidator was ready to redeem.^a

^a From 1867 to 1876 there was but one failure of a chartered bank in which the public suffered loss, that of the Bank of Acadia, which went down in 1873, after a corporate existence just short of four months. Out of this wreck, however, neither noteholders nor other creditors recovered more

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Since the lives of all the banks acting under Dominion charter were to expire July 1, 1881, it became necessary in the session of 1880 to take up the question on what terms to renew them. Some amendments to the legislation of 1871 had been made from time to time as the need appeared. Most important of these was the substitution, already noted, of prohibition for permission of the practice of one bank's lending upon another bank's shares (42 Vic., c. 5). Both in 1873 (36 Vic., c. 3) and in 1875 (38 Vic., c. 17) the form of the monthly return had been expanded to the end of exposing separately as well the accounts with the provincial as with the Dominion governments, of distinguishing between balances due to or from banks or agencies in the United Kingdom and similar accounts in foreign countries, and of presenting the liabilities of directors, whether as primary promissors or as indorsers. These were minor changes; now, it was expected, a general extension of charters would be marked by an effort more or less thoroughly to revise the bank act.

In the discussion and thought of this time upon questions of banking and currency and in the movements which proceeded from them, there appeared two main

than 20 per cent upon total liabilities of \$106,914. The debts of the Commercial Bank of Canada were redeemed at face during its suspension, and of course assumed in full by the bank, to which the estate was sold. Payment in full was also made to the creditors of the Commercial Bank of New Brunswick, which failed in 1868. The Westmoreland Bank, likewise domiciled in New Brunswick, was creditably liquidated, though at the expense of the shareholders from whom the double liability was called up. The Gore Bank—third of the banks to begin business under an Upper Canada charter and the last to give up the fight—was absorbed by one of its younger rivals in 1869, at about 57½ per cent on its nominal capital, after the stockholders had already effected a 40 per cent reduction in the value of their shares.

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trends. One of these was towards the issue of irredeemable paper money by the government. Conceived and held partly as logical corollary to the doctrine underlying the "national policy" of high protection, which had been approved at the polls such time as the Conservatives were returned to office, the theory that exchanges should be made with currency based upon labor, land, or the faith of the state, was embraced by such numbers and with such enthusiasm that the leaders of the party in power felt bound to show it no small respect. Any indigenous preferences for fiat money had been strengthened, of course, by comparisons, usually to Canada's disadvantage, between the progress of the Dominion and the growth of the United States since the civil war. Many of what were dubbed the "rag baby" arguments used in Canada were drawn from the arsenal of the influential and energetic greenback party south of the border. Champions of a "national currency," however, lacked the backing of business which stood the national policy in good stead, and apart from considerate, even deferential attention to the presentation of their proposals in the house, got nothing further from the government than an increase, cited earlier in these pages, of the limit upon the amount of Dominion notes which might be but partly covered by coin.

The other movement, to which most thinking persons lent their sympathy, if not their active help, took shape as a demand for a better regulation of the issues of the banks. The notes of the banks which had failed in 1879 fell to a discount directly they could no longer be redeemed. What faith there might have been that the

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issues of the Consolidated Bank would be paid at par was shaken by disclosures of the shameful mismanagement and by the notorious inadequacy of the assets of the Mechanics' Bank. Besides, there was many a holder of failed banks' notes who could not wait; between realization at a discount and waiting for payment in full he had no choice when such a note was all the cash he had.

To cure such troubles as had appeared under the Canadian system of regulation, those were not lacking who believed the prescription ready in the example of the United States. Once again, though without the ministerial backing it had in 1869, there appeared the plan to remodel Canadian charters on American lines and to secure the note issue by special deposits of bonds. Again, also, the inferior stability, the deficient elasticity, and the higher cost of the service of the "national" banks proved sufficient argument against the plan. Others suggested an audit by shareholders or inspection by the government, believing that with earlier discovery and recognition of questionable assets in the bill books of the banks bank embarrassments would be less frequent and serious than in 1876-1879. This proposal was rejected, partly because of the great practical difficulty—some called it the impossibility—of an inspection by any but a bank's own officers, when the property to be scrutinized was not under one roof but in as many different places as a bank happened to have branches. Not without weight, too, was the responsibility likely to be imputed to the government in the case of failure by banks which its inspectors had passed.

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The plan most widely favored and the protection for note holders which was advocated by the banks themselves was to make the paper intended for circulation a first charge or prior lien upon the assets of the issuing banks. The total assets of all the banks were then about eight times their debts upon notes; for single banks the proportion was seldom as low as six, and for some it stood as high as ten. Failure, it was believed, would inevitably befall a bank before its assets could be squandered or mismanaged until they would fetch but a sixth or a tenth of their nominal worth. Over and above the assets, there was the contingent or reserve liability of shareholders upon their stock, equal, if all collected, to the highest amount of circulation a bank might lawfully put out.

Sir Leonard Tilley, finance minister in the government of the time, made the prior lien of note holders a central feature of his proposals for revision. Objection to the change was offered by the Opposition on the old score that the preference of note holders enhanced the danger of depositors' runs. With the banks now willing to take the risk—asking for it, in fact—the objection had lost most of its weight. It was provided in the act to amend the bank act, to which the royal assent was given May 7, 1880, and which was to become effective July 1, 1881, “that the payment of the notes issued by any such (chartered) bank and intended for circulation, then outstanding, shall be the first charge upon the assets of the bank in the case of its insolvency” (43 Vic., c. 22, s. 12.)

In increasing to \$20,000,000 the quantity of Dominion notes for which cover of but 25 per cent in specie and

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guaranteed debentures of the Dominion needed to be kept, the ulterior purpose of the government was to expand this form of non-interest-bearing debt, so soon as might be, to the new limit allowed by law. To serve this purpose, the banks, which had been issuing notes for \$4 each since they were deprived of their \$1 and \$2 note circulation in 1871, were now restricted in their issue privileges to notes for \$5 and multiples of that sum. Further to facilitate the injection of more legal tenders into the country's currency, it was enacted that every bank when making payments should pay, if the payee so desired, any due sum up to \$50 in Dominion notes for \$1 or for \$2 each. The proportion of Dominion notes which banks were obliged to keep in their reserves was increased from usually half and not less than one-third to not less than 40 per cent. Being but incidental to the government's Dominion note policy, already approved by the house, these clauses provoked less criticism than if they had stood alone. Along with the other amendments and additions to the bank act, recommended by the ministry, they were passed with practically no debate.

Chief, perhaps, of these other provisions was that by which the form of the monthly return became fuller and more detailed. Henceforth separate report was to be made of loans from or deposits made by other banks in Canada, secured; loans from or deposits made by other banks in Canada, unsecured, and of the corresponding items on the assets side; of Dominion securities, of other government securities, of loans to corporations and of loans to municipal corporations, of real estate other than bank premises, and of mortgages on real estate sold by

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the bank. Another suggestion, derived from the experience of 1879, led to the exemption from liability on bank shares of persons holding stock as executors, guardians, administrators, or trustees, if the representation were declared in the bank's books. Recourse in such cases was reserved against the estate and funds held in trust. The term for which a bank might hold real property, not needed as bank premises, was limited to seven years from the time the property was acquired. Legislation of 1879, which required that contracts for sale of bank shares should specify the numbers of the shares, having proved impracticable of enforcement, was repealed.

Such sections of the bank act as dealt with loans upon bills of lading and warehouse receipts were expanded and considerably improved. Finally, clearly to distinguish credit establishments recognized by the Dominion from private ventures—some of them of questionable credit-worthiness—the use of the title “bank” by others than chartered banks was made a misdemeanor.

Three years after the first general revision, or in 1883, the government came to the conclusion that the penalty of charter forfeiture provided as sanction for certain prohibitions of the bank act was too severe. Accordingly, money penalties were established for a number of infractions in punishment for which the government would be reluctant to deprive a bank of its existence. Every day's delay after the time set for the annual dispatch of the list of its shareholders subjected the bank in default to a fine of \$50. Against note issue in excess of paid-up capital stock a fine of \$100 was provided for issue of less than \$20,000 beyond the limit; one of \$1,000, for \$20,000

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to \$100,000; of \$5,000, for \$100,000 to \$200,000; and of \$10,000 for \$200,000 or more of excess. Neglect to keep 40 per cent of the reserve in Dominion notes cost \$250 for each offense; failure to transmit the monthly return within twenty days of the end of the month, \$50 for each day's delay. For infraction of the clauses (secs. 40, 43, 46, and 51) of the bank act prohibiting loans upon real estate, the bank's own stock and the like, a fine not to exceed \$500 was provided for each offense. To the form of the monthly return were added headings for the amount of the rest or reserve fund and the rate of the last dividend. Further to guard against misapprehensions by the uninformed public, the use of the titles banking company, banking house, banking association, banking institution, or banking agency by persons or firms not working under the bank act was made a misdemeanor except the phrase "not incorporated" were added to the title.

The multiplication of bank charters all but ceased with the close of the year 1874. In the seven years 1875-1881, only two new incorporations were passed by Parliament; for neither one of these projects were the promoters able to find the capital. But the improvement in business conditions which began to be perceptible late in 1879, presently, under the impulses provided by the new protective tariff, extensive railway construction and the rapid development of the province of Manitoba, took the form of an active expansion which lasted well into 1883. This improvement served again to stimulate the organization of additional banks. Thirteen new charters were granted between 1882 and 1886—four each in 1882 and 1884, three in 1883, and two in 1886. Eight of these

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charters were forfeited in time for non-user within the term prescribed by the several acts. Of the five banks which did start but two survived the year 1894. Meanwhile reductions of capital by some six of the banks, amounting in all to \$4,070,000, four failures, and two liquidations left the capital at the end of 1889 at \$60,057,235, \$72,000 less than four years before. The highest amount reported at the end of any year was in 1885—\$61,763,279—when 41 banks were reporting, as compared to 36 in 1879 and 38 in 1889. The business of these institutions, however, showed substantial growth, deposits by the public having increased by 85, circulation by 50, total liabilities by 63, and total assets by 42 per cent. On the whole, a considerable advance in practice appears to have marked the decade. The lessons of 1876-1879 were fairly fresh in mind; the soundness and security of business offering was given more attention than in the days when expansion was accounted an end in itself. The application of borrowed funds became a point for minuter inquiry, and, as a rule, the banks less frequently discovered, too late to be of much help, that they had been finding the price of real estate, plant, or other fixed investment. The increase of branches contributed also to the stability and strength of the banks. Seven of them, for example, had agencies in Manitoba when the land boom collapsed in 1882. So serious were the losses there, not by reason of participation of their own in the inflation of land values, but because of the thoroughness with which the whole commercial community had been infected with the speculative virus, that three out of the seven Winnipeg managers were dismissed.

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Bad debts which would have swamped local banks, perhaps for all time, were taken care of by the Canadian banks which suffered them without other outward sign than reductions of capital, smaller additions to rest account, or lower dividends upon their stock.

Of the banks which failed in this period, the Exchange Bank of Canada, domiciled in Montreal, went down the first. Chartered in 1872, it had called up the whole of \$1,000,000 authorized capital by June, 1875. In August, 1879, its position became such that it had to suspend payment, though only for a month. Half its capital was written off in 1881, the directors admitting losses to the amount of \$341,000. After this untoward episode, the directors appear to have engaged in the effort to bolster the standing of their bank by extensive trading in its stock. A twelvemonth before bankruptcy stock fetched as high as \$179 a share of \$100 par. For reasons that the government never made satisfactorily plain, the bank, more than half of whose stock was owned by prominent Conservatives, got help from the government in the spring of 1883, in the sum of \$300,000. Probably there was abundant truth in the criticism of the Opposition that the bank was a political bank, and an example of the disasters awaiting a political bank. Apart from that, the management was both unscrupulous and unsound. Indeed, the managing director was discovered himself to be owing the bank \$226,000 when it failed September 15, 1883. A note issue of \$380,218, government deposits of more than \$300,000, and public deposits (many of them attracted by rates considerably above the market) rising \$1,600,000 were the principal items of liabilities for

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\$2,430,000 at the time of the final suspension. By virtue of the priority accorded such claims, the notes were paid in full, or rather payment could be had in full, within two months of the suspension. The discount upon this paper, suffered by those who sold it in the street, was never reported as higher than 10 per cent. To other creditors, even with the help of all that could be collected upon the double liability of shareholders, the dividends were only 66½ per cent.

A worse outcome awaited the creditors, other than note holders, of the Maritime Bank of the Dominion of Canada, whose head office was at St. John, New Brunswick. From the time of its organization in 1872 to 1883-84, nearly \$600,000 of its resources were sunk in a series of more or less speculative operations, most of them unduly large advances to a few favored firms or individuals. For this period of its existence it was in a great measure a one-man bank. Though reorganized in 1884, on a capital reduced to \$247,000 and placed in new hands, the bank seems still to have followed the course which its experience roundly condemned. By 1887 its overdue debts amounted to \$650,000, more than half of this owing by bankrupts. A sum exceeding twice or thrice its capital had been put by the bank into certain lumber accounts, for the payment of which the sponsor was really but one concern. To the end of prolonging its existence, the management resorted to the plan of kiting sterling bills. A week before the bank failed, in March, 1887, it had \$205,000 on deposit by the Province of New Brunswick and \$70,735 of Dominion funds, among total liabilities of about \$1,410,000. The two governments were suc-

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cessful in suits to enforce the crown priority, the law in New Brunswick being more favorable to the Crown than in Quebec, where like litigation begun by the Dominion against the Exchange Bank had failed. Other creditors, apart from note holders, received 10.6 per cent of the amount of their claims. The note holders, though two years passed before the operation was complete, were paid the face of their claims in full, the amount outstanding at failure being \$314,000.

By the Exchange Bank failure, public creditors lost close to \$690,000, exclusive of interest; by that of the Maritime Bank at least \$750,000. From the two bank failures which occurred in Ontario in August and November, 1887, the public loss was less than \$15,000. The first of these bankruptcies was committed by the Bank of London in Canada, first established in 1883, and soon involved by a speculative president in a variety of precarious ventures, among them a loan company under his control which later became insolvent. Both note holders and other creditors were paid in full, and more than \$80,000 upon the \$241,000 paid-up stock returned to the proprietary. In winding up the Central Bank of Canada, also chartered in 1883 and bankrupt in November, 1887, it was necessary to collect the double liability from the holders of the stock. With this help, notes were redeemed at par and claims of other creditors at 99 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. The history of this bank was one of discreditable practice, scandalous mismanagement, and more or less dishonest diversion of the bank's resources to the benefit of an inner clique.

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The Pictou Bank, having suffered large losses through the failure of some of the principal debtors, went into voluntary liquidation in 1887, and after discharging all its debts, distributed among its shareholders \$68,000 odd upon a capital of \$232,000.

The second example of voluntary liquidation was provided by the Federal Bank. Incorporated in 1872, the bank had gradually increased its capital to practically \$3,000,000. Its management was enterprising, ambitious, and inclined somewhat to scoff at the conservative policies pursued by other and older concerns. One of the devices to which the management resorted was the formation of a subsidiary company for the purpose of lending upon the bank's own stock and of supporting the market for its shares. So well did this "little machine" work for a time that the \$1,500,000 new capital issued in 1883 was floated at a premium of 40 per cent. All of the new capital and \$250,000 more disappeared in 1885, when the stock was reduced by act of parliament to \$1,250,000. The year before, in July, losses in Michigan lumber deals, lockups in Manitoba, and the operations of the machine having crippled its resources, the bank was saved from suspension only by the help of \$2,000,000 lent for a brief season by other banks. The new manager then appointed struggled along until the fall of 1887, when the stock of the Federal Bank, never high in the public confidence since the disclosures of 1883, fell below par. Withdrawals of deposits and redemption of notes for a total of \$1,632,000 occurred in the last two months of 1887 and the first of 1888. Called into consultation upon the Federal's case, bankers of Toronto decided to advance enough cash to

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pay off the liabilities of the bank, provided it were wound up forthwith with open doors. With the failures of the Central and London banks fresh in men's memories, the step was probably a wise one. It meant, to be sure, an advance of some \$2,700,000 at a time when reserves were particularly low, but it also meant, or at least so bankers believed, escape from something like a panic and calls for considerably larger amounts of cash before the uneasiness roused by another bank failure could be allayed. The estate of the bank proved sufficient, not only to repay the helping banks but also to permit a substantial dividend to shareholders.

In the twenty-three years, 1867-1889, the sum total of losses suffered by the holders of shares in Canadian banks, whether by reductions of capital, voluntary liquidation, failures, or contribution upon the double liability, was not far short of \$23,000,000. Were reductions of rests or the sums appropriated for losses out of profits to be included the total of investors' losses would be still higher. But notwithstanding the failure of 10 banks and the withdrawal, for cause, of 8 others from the field, the loss of principal inflicted upon the creditors of the banks in this period was not more than \$2,000,000, no matter what the nature of such creditors' claims.

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VI.—BANK ACT REVISION OF 1890.

The ultimate security of the Canadian bank note circulation had been put beyond question, in all but the most exceptional circumstances, by the legislation of 1880, which made the note holder's claim a prior lien. But the bank disasters of 1883 and 1887 had shown that there could be a serious interruption of the immediate convertibility, directly the issuer of the notes had failed. Neither the Exchange Bank's notes nor those of the Central Bank were subjected to discount greater than 10 per cent in the time between failure and the beginning of payment, but in the two years and more which passed before the liquidator was ready to redeem its paper, those of the Maritime Bank, fetched as little at one time as 40 per cent of their face. And in exceptional circumstances, even the ultimate security was not all that could be desired. Some part of the outstanding issues of banks going into voluntary or involuntary liquidation—that part which was not presented within the stipulated time—had been affected by the clauses in the winding-up acts passed for such banks which permitted the liquidators or the liquidators' trustee, after a term of years and due notice, to distribute among shareholders such sums as had been reserved for the redemption of notes outstanding. It had been found that not all the notes of a failed or otherwise liquidating bank could be called in within any set term.

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Still another cause for complaint was to be found in the circumstance that bank notes did not circulate at par in all parts of the country. Notes ordinarily were subject to a discount equal at least to the domestic exchange on the place where they were payable, when offered in places remote from that of issue. When a branch office of the promissor was in the neighborhood, the notes could be used in making payments to such a branch and hence had better standing. But although the number of offices had nearly trebled between 1869 and 1889, there were but 402 offices of chartered banks in the whole Dominion. Being a frequent annoyance, the discount for geographical reasons constituted no inconsiderable grievance.

A fourth objection to the bank act, as Sir Francis Hincks had framed it and Sir Leonard Tilley left it, was the comparative ease of the terms upon which a charter could be obtained. The increase of small banks, or of banks started by persons of small responsibility, had been productive of financial episodes for which the community had small relish. Even the stanchest champions of competition were agreed that the paid-up capital required of new organizations should be increased.

Finally, as in previous discussion about banking legislation, advocacy of bond-secured circulation was not lacking. Among the most conspicuous supporters of proposals to import the system of regulation adopted in the United States were the president and some of the directors of the Bank of Montreal. The Gazette of that city presented through 1889 long arguments in favor of

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the plan, mainly because of the security and uniformity of value it would give the country's currency.

The banks, on their side, began to prepare for revision as early as December, 1888. One measure contrived to keep notes at par, however far they might be from the place of issue, was the completion in 1889 of arrangements by most of the banks under which, working generally in pairs, one bank took up at face, in its own neighborhood, such notes of the other as might be presented for redemption. Another step, which eventually led to the organization of the Canadian Bankers' Association, was the decision jointly to work out and to present to the ministry certain suggestions for reform. One of the most significant and far-reaching of these was the establishment of a safety fund, calculated to prevent discount whatsoever on the notes of a suspended bank.

The bankers and the minister of finance, then the Hon. George E. Foster, met in Ottawa January 25, 1890, and on February 11 and 12. What the government proposed to do in respect of revision was not communicated to the bankers at the first meeting, but an expression of views was invited upon the questions of making the bank act a permanent statute, of preventing the discount on the notes of a solvent but distant bank, of preventing discount on the notes of a bank no matter what the issuer's condition, of restricting the circulating privileges of a bank, say, to 60 or 70 per cent of its paid-up stock or to the average of the past three years, of requiring the banks to hold fixed proportions of their liabilities in cash, and of requiring a larger paid-up capital for new banks.

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In order to prevent the discount upon notes of a solvent but distant bank, the bankers proposed that banks be obliged to maintain that which most of them had already voluntarily arranged, namely, the redemption of their notes in a number of centers sufficient to insure their circulation at par the country through. This was fairer, they thought, than to compel each bank to accept the notes of all other banks; under the suggested plan the burden of redemption would fall on the bank which had the benefit of circulation. To prevent discount upon notes of a suspended bank, there was submitted to the minister's consideration the project of a safety fund, later enacted into law, and the suggestion that liquidators should deposit with the Crown, before the final distribution of surplus assets, enough to redeem any notes the books of the banks might show as still outstanding. Objection to further restriction of circulating privileges was offered on the ground that the business of many of the banks was of a sort to which large though fluctuating amounts of circulation were well nigh indispensable. There was a possibility of working needless hardship were rights of issue restricted to a fixed percentage of capital, while if the limit imposed were the average of three years, some banks would be unable to meet the annual expansion in the demand for notes.

The chief argument, however, was directed against the suggested requirement of a fixed reserve. Even conceding that some of the Canadian banks had been sailing too close to the wind in the matter of reserves, it was held that a reserve is no reserve if it may not be used when needed. The bankers contended that in the United

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States, where the law fixed the least proportion of cash compared to liabilities a bank might carry, the rule was all too frequently honored by its breach, and that it was a fruitful source of violent fluctuations in interest rates at the financial centers. Worse than all else, the fixed reserve was unsuited to Canadian conditions.

Wherever, as in Canada, a borrowing customer is expected to bank with but one bank, the bank, having granted the customer a line of credit, assumes a tacit obligation to meet his demands for credit to the amount of the grant. Multiply such an obligation by thousands, as a bank with many branches must do, and it becomes clear that the bank is more or less in duty bound to find and to advance large sums at times impossible exactly to foresee. Unusual conditions of trade or finance or even exceptional weather could conceivably necessitate an expansion of liabilities, such as is usually coincident with an expansion of assets in modern banking, which would reduce the proportion of reserve below the minimum fixed by law. In such cases, the bankers argued, the freedom of action would be hampered, and the efficiency of the country's institutions of credit impaired, to no good purpose. Further, the obligation to maintain a fixed reserve would grievously and injuriously weaken their power to cope with situations such as the difficulties of the Federal Bank had brought about. The finance minister, however, was obdurate. From his decision to insist upon this radical innovation the bankers appealed to the cabinet. Partly by argument, partly by none too closely veiled a threat to make the question a political issue, the privy council was induced to overrule the minister of

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finance. The proposals for bank-act revision he submitted to parliament carried no provision for a fixed reserve.

In the house of commons two other details of his original project were either modified considerably or abandoned altogether. One was the proposal of a compulsory external audit, to be conducted by nominees of the shareholders, the results of which should be communicated to the shareholders at their annual meetings and to the minister of finance. To this it was objected that an auditor could not be expected accurately to ascertain the character and value of a bank's discounts—the key to its whole position—and that consequently a favorable report from an auditor would be no guaranty that the condition of a bank was sound. The shareholders' audit, therefore, was rejected. The other, and subsequently modified proposal, was one to the effect that a return should be made each year of the dividends unclaimed for five years, and of balances in respect of which no transaction had occurred or on which no interest had been paid for five years. Together with the amounts involved, the names and last-known addresses of the persons to whom these sums were due, and the place and time of their last transaction were to be set forth in the return, and sums not claimed within three years after the first return in which they were reported were to be paid to the minister of finance for the public uses of the Dominion, saving the right of the person entitled to any sum to recover it on proper proof of claim. The effort exactly to copy for Canada provisions more or less common to the bank law of India, some of the Australian colonies, and Natal failed in the form first proposed, but the banks were obliged

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each year to report to the government the amount of balances and dividends, unclaimed and dormant, for five years preceding, and all the other details which the minister had desired. As it happened, therefore, the revision of the bank act under Doctor Foster was considerably closer to his own description than he at first intended—"to keep the existing system, but to improve it, obviate the objections and difficulties, and establish new safeguards."

First of the improvements was the establishment of a safety fund—the bank circulation redemption fund, it was styled in the act—to prevent discount upon the notes of a failed bank between the time the failure happened and that at which the notes could be redeemed. As originally constituted, and lodged in the keeping of the minister of finance and receiver-general of the Dominion, this fund was to be made up from contributions of the several banks enjoying issue privileges, equal each to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent upon their average circulation in the year 1890-91, and to a further $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent upon their average circulation in the year 1891-92. Thereafter it was to be adjusted annually so that it would be equal to 5 per cent of the average circulation of the contributing banks, as shown by the monthly return of notes outstanding in the twelvemonth preceding the 30th of June, the average being calculated, however, on the greatest amount outstanding during the month and not upon what might be in circulation at the end of the month. "The bank circulation redemption fund * * *," it was provided by section 54 of the act (53 Vic., c. 31), "shall be held for the following purposes and for no other, namely: In the event of the suspension by the bank of payment in specie or Dominion

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notes of any of its liabilities as they accrue, for the payment of the notes then issued or reissued by such bank and intended for circulation, and interest thereon; and the minister of finance and receiver-general shall, with respect to all notes paid out of the said fund, have the same rights as any other holder of the notes of the bank." The last clause, of course, related to the note holder's private lien.

No payment was to be made out of the fund, however, unless the liquidator of the bank originally responsible for the notes should fail to make arrangements for their redemption within two months of the bank's suspension. But when occasion should arise to use the fund, payments were to be made from it, irrespective of the amount contributed by the bank on whose behalf the payment might be made. When payments should exceed the contribution of such a bank, other issuing banks could be called upon to make good the amount of the excess, but not in sums greater in any one year than 1 per cent of their average circulation for that year. Such contributions were to be returned to the banks making them, pro rata to their amount, in case recovery of the whole or any part were obtained from the failed bank's estate. Further clauses permitted the return of its contribution to the liquidator of a bank in process of winding up, directly it was clear that adequate provision had been made for its notes, and enabled the minister of finance to enforce by suit the payment of any sum due by a bank under the regulations governing the fund. The precise terms of the bank act of 1890 as amended in 1900 and consolidated in 1906 are printed in full in Appendix II.

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Significant as were the creation of machinery by which the chartered banks became joint guarantors of each one's issue of notes, and the psychological effect, due to this change, upon the standing of the bank-note circulation, practical consequences of at least equal importance were brought about by the provisions for the payment of interest upon a failed or suspended bank's notes. Directly default upon any of its liabilities was committed by a bank, the act provided, its notes intended for circulation should bear interest at the rate of 6 per cent per annum until such time as the liquidator, or other proper official, published notice of his readiness to redeem them. Should he fail so to announce his readiness, or, having published notice, fail to redeem notes as they were presented, they were to bear interest for such further time as passed before they were redeemed out of the safety fund. It was in this manner that in Canada the paper of a failed bank became worth more in some circumstances, and never less in any, than the paper of a going concern. In practice, moreover, not one dollar has ever been paid from the bank circulation Redemption Fund in the redemption of failed bank's notes. "The notes of such banks failed since 1890 have all been met in the ordinary course of winding up, without resort to this interesting provision of the bank act."^a

To the end of doing away with the discount upon the notes of solvent but distant banks, the ministry and Parliament made obligatory the maintenance of arrangements similar to those already begun by many of the

^a Letter of T. C. Boville, Esq., deputy minister of finance, under date of May 25, 1909.

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banks of their own motion. In requiring the banks, generally, to insure the circulation of all their notes at par in any and every part of Canada, the act specifically commanded the establishment of agencies of redemption and payment of notes at the commerical center of each province—Halifax, St. John, Charlottetown, Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, and Victoria. Obedience to the specific mandate of this section (sec. 55) has sufficed to effect execution of the general injunction. At the same time, in forcing notes more quickly back upon the issuing bank, it has served beyond question as a potent corrective of any tendencies to inflation of the circulation which the disappearance of all doubt about its security and convertibility may have brought into play. Whether from real concern or in a spirit of heckling, the Opposition had made much in the debate of the possible weakening of motives for redemption and the likely loss of one of the most important safeguards peculiar to the traditional scheme of regulation.

The third and last of the major changes affecting circulation repealed the statute of limitations so far as it affected the notes or deposits of banks which might become insolvent or go into liquidation under a general winding-up act. Moneys of this character payable by the liquidator and remaining unpaid for three years after insolvency was committed or winding up began, or remaining unpaid at the time of winding up, if that were sooner finished, had henceforth to be paid to the minister of finance, who was to hold them for the uses of the Dominion, saving the rights of the owners of the unclaimed deposits or holders of unredeemed notes. The govern-

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ment by this provision also gained what slight advantage there might be from notes lost or destroyed, while for holders of notes current in 1890 or thereafter the certainty of collecting the face of their claims was permanently assured. At the same time the contributors to the safety fund were protected from claims for redemption which might be repudiated by the estate of the original promissor on the ground that the time within which they ought to be presented had expired.

To provide the security of a larger paid-up capital, the amount upon which a new bank might begin business was increased to \$500,000 subscribed and \$250,000 paid up. And the better to satisfy the public and the government that the foundation was real, it was stipulated that no bank should issue notes or begin business until \$250,000 of its capital should have lain on deposit with the minister of finance for at least four weeks, and such longer period as might elapse until the issue of a certificate from the treasury board. Such a certificate was to issue only in case the treasury board were satisfied that the new organization had complied with all the pertinent provisions of the bank act, and only within one year from the date the bank's charter was passed.

The clauses pertaining to loans upon warehouse receipts and bills of lading were once more recast and the provisions as to loans intended to aid in the manufacture of goods considerably extended. The marked peculiarity of the provisions, both as to warehouse receipts and bills of lading, and as to loans to "manufacturers" consisted in this, that the banks might not take the security or document transferring the title to goods, wares, or mer-

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chandise, except they acquired such security, or a written agreement that such security would be given, at the time of the negotiation of the bill, note, or debt for which the security was a pledge. Due formalities being observed, the bank taking documents for the commodities concerned acquired a lien prior to the claim of the unpaid vendor. For the purposes of the bank act the word "manufacturer" was defined as including "maltsters, distillers, brewers, refiners, and producers of petroleum, tanners, curers, packers, canners of meat, pork, fish, fruit, or vegetables, and any person who produces by hand, art, process, or mechanical means any goods, wares, or merchandise." Apart from the things usually understood as goods, wares, and merchandise, the phrase was defined as further including "timber deals, boards, staves, saw logs, and other lumber, petroleum, crude oil, all agricultural produce and other articles of commerce." As first brought down, the bill permitted loans on the security given by any person engaged as a wholesale manufacturer or "producer." For fear that "producer" might be held to include the farmer, whose general credit depended on the visible possession of divers chattels, such as grain, cattle, and implements, and because assignment of these under the form for such transfer would not become notorious like a chattel mortgage, the word "producer" was struck out. In their amended form the clauses read:

"SEC. 74. The bank may lend money to any person engaged in business as a wholesale manufacturer of any goods, wares, and merchandise upon the security of the goods, wares, and merchandise manufactured by him or procured for such manufacture.

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"2. The bank may also lend money to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of products of agriculture, the forest, and mine, or the sea, lakes, and rivers, or to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of live stock or dead stock, and the products thereof, upon the security of such products or of such live stock or dead stock and the product thereof.

"3. Such security may be given by the owner and may be taken in the form set forth in Schedule C to this act, or to the like effect; and by virtue of such security the bank shall acquire the same rights and powers in respect to the goods, wares, and merchandise, stock or products covered thereby, as if it had acquired the same by virtue of a warehouse receipt.^a

"SEC. 76. If goods, wares, and merchandise are manufactured or produced from the goods, wares, and merchandise, or any of them, included in or covered by any warehouse receipt, or security given under section 74 of this act, while so covered, the bank holding such warehouse receipt or security shall hold or continue to hold such goods, wares, and merchandise during the process

^a Following is the form given in Schedule C:

In consideration of an advance of ----- dollars, made by the (name of bank) to A. B. for which the said bank holds the following bills or notes (describe fully the bills or notes held, if any), the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned below are hereby assigned to the said bank as security for the payment, on or before the ----- day of the said advance, together with interest thereon at the rate of ---- per cent per annum from the ----- day of ----- (or of the said bills and notes or renewals thereof or substitutions therefor, and interest thereon, or as the case may be).

This security is given under the provisions of section 74 of "the bank act," and is subject to all the provisions of the said act.

The said goods, wares, and merchandise are now owned by ----- and are now in ---- possession, and are free from any mortgage, lien, or charge thereon (or as the case may be), and are in (place or places where goods are), and are the following: (particular description of goods assigned).

Dated at -----, 18-----.

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and after the completion of such manufacture or production with the same right and title and for the same purposes and upon the same conditions as it held or could have held the original goods, wares, and merchandise."

Apart from the four main changes and the legislation respecting secured loans now reviewed, the revision of 1890 was mostly devoted to points of minor detail. In one such clause, there was enacted a declaration of the priority of the Crown as creditor of an insolvent bank, already a prerogative by the common law, in provinces where the common law obtained, but one not recognized by Quebec courts, construing the civil law, in the suit brought by the Dominion against the estate of the Exchange Bank. The notes being always the first claim, it was now provided that any amount due the government of Canada in trust or otherwise should be the second charge on the assets of an insolvent bank; any sum due governments of the provinces, a third charge. Another amendment changed the qualification of directors in respect of stock holdings, by stipulating that they should own certain amounts of paid-up rather than merely subscribed stock, namely, \$3,000 when the paid-up capital was less than \$1,000,000; \$4,000 when it was between \$1,000,000 and \$3,000,000; and \$5,000 when it was more than \$3,000,000. The requirements as to directors were perhaps relaxed in this, that henceforth only the majority of a board needed to be British subjects.

The increase or decrease of capital stock was permitted to shareholders acting by by-law passed in general meeting, though such by-laws were not to become effective till approved by the treasury board. Banks were required to build up their rests or surpluses to 30 per cent of the paid-

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up stocks before distributing dividends of more than 8 per cent in any one year. The liability of all banks upon deposits or dividends declared and payable was continued indefinitely, notwithstanding any statute of limitations. The term prior to a suspension during which the liability of the owner of shares in a bank which subsequently fails, cannot be evaded by sale, was extended from thirty to sixty days. The use of divers titles, such as bank, banking house, banking company, by persons not authorized thereto by the bank act was forbidden altogether. Extension of undue or fraudulent preference to creditors became punishable by imprisonment not to exceed two years; the making of willfully false or deceptive returns or statements, by imprisonment not to exceed five years. Offenses against the bank act, among which was the unauthorized use of the title bank, were penalized by fines not exceeding \$1,000 and imprisonment for five years, or both at the discretion of the court. For the comparatively mild penalties against overissue, provided by Sir Leonard Tilley, Doctor Foster now substituted fines which were exceedingly severe. For issue in excess of the paid-up capital, less than \$1,000, the fine became the amount of such excess; for an overissue of \$1,000 to \$20,000, \$1,000; for one of \$20,000 to \$100,000, \$10,000; of \$100,000 to \$200,000, \$50,000; and for an overissue of more than \$200,000, a fine of \$100,000 was to be imposed.

The special provisions relating to the banks under royal charter and to the Banque du Peuple (*en commandite*) were renewed. The only noteworthy contrast between the position of these banks and those with ordinary charters, was the limitation of the note issue of the Bank of

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British North America and of the Banque du Peuple to 75 per cent of their respective paid-up stocks. For banks of Canadian origin and subject, or likely shortly to be subject, to the jurisdiction of the Dominion, the corporate life was continued till July 1, 1901.

In the shape to which it was wrought by the painstaking able, and thorough revision of 1890, the bank act of the Dominion has stood with but little change in form and none in its underlying principles for the past eighteen years. What new provisions have been added to the statute have been prompted by the purpose to facilitate rather than hinder the growth of the banks, or by the determination to round out and to perfect the new measures whereby the circulation has been safeguarded since 1891.

One at least of the Canadian banks having opened offices in another British colony where the pound sterling was the monetary unit, a law of 1899 (chap. 14) permitted the issue of notes intended for circulation in denominations of 1 pound sterling or multiples of the pound sterling. It was stipulated, however, that such notes should not be issued in Canada (notes for \$5 being the lowest permissible there) and that they should bear legibly across their face the name of the place where, in the colony for which they were intended, they would be redeemed at par. In 1904 similar branches having been established in other British colonies where a dollar of different value than the Canadian dollar was the monetary unit, banks were permitted to issue, but only in such colonies, notes for \$5, and multiples of \$5, redeemable at par in the dollars recognized in the place of issue as the legal tender and the money of account. (4 Edw. VII., chap. 3.)

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The third of these measures suggested by the expanding business of the banks was not passed until 1908. For some years, however, a need for it had appeared, in the closeness with which the circulation of a number of the banks, notwithstanding large increases of paid-up capital, had approached the legal limit in the active season of autumn. It was now enacted that in the crop-moving time of any year—from October 1 to January 31 of the following year—a bank might issue notes in excess of its unimpaired paid-up capital to the amount of 15 per cent of the sum of its paid-up capital and rest account (surplus) as shown by the monthly return to the government. (7-8 Edw. vii, chap. 7.)^a As price for the privilege of overissue, any bank taking advantage of the amendment was required to pay interest upon the excess, at a rate not to exceed 5 per cent per annum, to be fixed by the governor in council. Whatever is realized by way of such interest accrues to the general revenue of the Dominion. In the month of October, 1908, five banks reported the greatest amount of their notes in circulation at \$700,000 more than their capital stock; in November like figures for six banks showed an excess of \$788,710, but in December all but four banks, with an excess of \$304,000, were again within the limit of normal issue, and these four reported circulations less than their paid-up capitals throughout the month of January, 1909. At the highest amount outstanding in November there was still a reserve power of issue, independently of emergency privileges, of \$6,865,692, shown by a comparison of the total notes in circulation to the paid-up stock of the banks.

^aSee Appendix III.

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VII.—AMENDMENTS OF 1900.

As the time for the decennial revision of 1900 drew near, there began among the Canadian chartered banks a movement intended to bring about, if possible, the extension to its logical conclusion of the principle recognized in 1890 by the establishment of the fund for the redemption of failed banks' notes. The initial advance had been to make the banks the joint guarantors of each others' notes; the next step, it was believed, should be to give the banks a measure of joint control over the issue, circulation, withdrawal and destruction of notes. The possibilities of the original suggestion developed under discussion; it is not too much to say that in a union for insuring the security of their circulation there finally appeared the beginnings, at any rate, of common effort toward encouraging and, if need be, enforcing the general observance of high standards of banking, the maintenance of adequate reserves, the prevention of frauds in the issue, and the administration of insolvent banks' estates to the best interest both of their creditors and of those who held their shares.

As the instrument of these purposes, the bankers suggested the Canadian Bankers' Association, a voluntary organization formed in 1892, for the common benefit and protection of the banks. Chartered banks were its members; its associate members, bank officers and bank clerks. In meetings of the association members were

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represented by their chief executives for the time being; between meetings, the interests of the organization were watched, and its affairs managed, by an executive council whose liberty of action, subject, of course, to approval of the association at the annual meetings, was as wide as could be desired. In the session of 1900 Parliament gave this voluntary association the status of a public corporation in a special act and with the declared object "to promote generally the interests and efficiency of bank officers and the education and training of those contemplating employment in banks, and for such purposes, among other means, to arrange for lectures, discussions, competitive papers and examinations on commercial law and banking, and to acquire, publish, and carry on the *Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association*. (63-64 Vic., c. 93.)

Power was accorded the association to establish subsections, to establish a clearing house for banks in any place of the Dominion, and to make rules and regulations for the conduct of clearing houses, but with the provisos that membership in a clearing house should be voluntary, that members of such organizations should have equal voice in making the rules and regulations, and that no such provisions should become effective until approved by the treasury board. "The objects and powers of the association," declared the act of incorporation, "shall be carried out and exercised by the executive council," or under norms fixed by the council. Fourteen chief executives of chartered banks, and the president and vice-president of the association, as elected at the annual meetings, made up the executive council. Resolutions, by-laws, rules,

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and regulations passed by the executive council had force only until approved at the next meeting of the association and none thereafter if not approved. By-laws affecting clearing houses were of no effect until approved by the treasury board.

Further powers and functions were confirmed to the association in the measure by which the several charters were continued to 1911—the bank act itself. (63-64 Vic., c. 26.)^a There the means were provided for taking away the control, or, at any rate, the unsupervised control of a suspended bank from its officers directly a default occurred. Under such by-laws as it might adopt the association was authorized to appoint some competent person a “curator,” to supervise the property and conduct of a suspended bank. His duty was to “assume supervision of the affairs of the bank” and arrangements for the payment of outstanding notes. Generally, he was to have the powers and to take the steps necessary or expedient to protect the creditors and shareholders of the bank and to conserve and properly to dispose of its assets. Toward these purposes the curator was given access to all books and papers, documents and accounts, and was to remain in office until removed, or until the bank resumed business, or until a liquidator had been appointed for the purpose of winding it up. Under the act of 1890, as under that of 1871, a bank might suspend payment for ninety days consecutively or within the year without becoming insolvent or forfeiting its charter. The presence of a curator directly any bank suspended became especially

^a See Appendix II for the Bank Act as revised in 1890, amended in 1900, and consolidated in 1906.

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desirable as precaution against note issue during suspension. Resort to this practice, which would enable favored depositors to convert their claims into prior liens, had been prohibited in previous legislation only by the clauses against giving undue, unfair, or fraudulent preferences. Now, the law forbade it specifically by a fine of \$2,000 or imprisonment for seven years, or both. Henceforth a bank once suspended had no right to resume business until the curator had given his consent in writing or to issue notes again until authorized by the treasury board so to do. The removal of a curator, no less than his powers and duties, was subjected to such rules as the association might prescribe. His remuneration as fixed by the association was made a charge upon the assets of the bank to the supervision of which he might be assigned.

Besides its duties in respect of suspended banks, the Bankers' Association was given more or less inquisitorial powers as against banks which were going concerns. It was permitted at any meeting to make by-laws, rules, and regulations respecting "the supervision of the making of the notes of the banks which are intended for circulation, and the delivery thereof to the banks, the inspection of the disposition made by the banks of such notes, the destruction of the notes of the banks, and the imposition of penalties for the breach or nonobservance of any by-law, rule, or regulation made by virtue of this section." But before any by-law or rule concerning either the appointment, powers, duties, and removal of a curator, or the exercise of supervising privileges in respect of the circulation could become effective, it was stipulated the measure should receive the approval of two-thirds of the

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banks represented in the meeting at which it was put to vote, the banks so approving having two-thirds in par value of the paid-up capital represented. Nor could it become effective then, except that it was approved by the treasury board, after submission to every bank not a member of the association, and opportunity given such banks to be heard with respect to the measure.

By way of acknowledging a tendency, long more or less perceptible, toward the merger of the smaller, and in a great degree local banks into the larger and more heavily capitalized institutions of the system, parliament added to the bank act in 1900 a set of general provisions permitting and regulating the merger of banks, upon agreement to that effect between the shareholders of the selling and the management of the buying corporation concerned. The need for special act of parliament to complete the bargain thereafter disappeared. The main preliminaries were now reduced to a proposal of purchase, consent of the holders of two-thirds of the shares of the selling bank, and the approval of the governor-in-council given on recommendation of the treasury board. Strict precautions were established for meeting the liabilities of the vendors; but the purchasing bank might execute the agreement of sale under its seal without special consultation of its shareholders, except in the case that the merger involved an increase of the buying bank's capital stock.

One other change made at this time suggested in some ways the proposal for a shareholders' audit, which parliament had refused to accept two years before. No specific mention of an audit occurred now, but it was provided,

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while safeguarding the privacy of personal accounts, that the directors of a bank should submit at annual meetings such further statements, other than those presenting the details already stipulated in the act, as the shareholders might require by by-law passed in any general meeting. The specific prohibition, on heavy penalties, of note issue during suspension has already been remarked. Better to adjust that rate to the current market, the rate of interest borne by a suspended bank's notes such time as they could not be redeemed, was reduced from 6 to 5 per cent. To protect the Dominion treasury, amounts paid out of the safety fund in excess of the contribution of a failed bank were made to bear interest at 3 per cent until repaid out of the estate to the minister of finance. The limit within which a bank must dispose of real property, other than bank premises, was extended from seven to twelve years. Realty held for a term longer than twelve years after it was acquired in complete or partial satisfaction of a debt became liable to forfeiture to the Crown, but only after six months' notice from the minister of finance that the Crown proposed to claim the forfeiture. Within that half year the bank could still give good title to the property. Clauses dealing with loans upon special security were amended in favor of the import trade, so that the banks might take warehouse receipts or bills of lading as security for liabilities incurred on behalf of persons to whom had been issued letters of credit. To the unpaid balances and unpaid dividends which were already the subject-matter of an annual return was added to the category of drafts and bills of exchange issued and outstanding for more than five years. Finally, the form of

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the monthly statement of condition was so amended as to distinguish between deposits in Canada and elsewhere, to include the amount of bills rediscounted in the item of "loans from other banks in Canada, secured," and to show separately balances due to banks or agencies in Canada, in the United Kingdom, and elsewhere. For these changes upon the liabilities side of the form there were corresponding changes upon the assets side. Headings also were introduced to distinguish between call and short loans in Canada and current loans in Canada, from similar investments elsewhere.

The Canadian Bankers' Association, acting under its new charter, promptly prepared a set of by-laws for carrying out the provisions of its incorporation and of the bank act. As amended in April, 1901, they were approved by the treasury board and came into effect according to law. A copy of the by-laws, which include a set of uniform clearing-house rules, substantially identical with those the preparation of which had been begun in 1897, appears in Appendix VII. While the document was largely formal in character, there were embodied in it two groups of provisions in which the procedure merely suggested by the bank act was more fully developed. One such group was that which determined the fashion in which the association should exercise its supervision over the issue and circulation of notes.

In brief, a monthly return of circulation, properly verified, was required of each chartered bank doing business in the Dominion, whether a member of the association or not. The form of the return included separate headings for the credit balance of bank-note accounts on the last

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day of the preceding month, inclusive of unsigned notes, notes received from printers during the month, notes destroyed during the month, balance of bank-note accounts on the last day of the month, notes on hand, whether signed or unsigned, and the notes in circulation on the last day of the month. The form of certificate setting forth the destruction of notes in the period covered by any return called for a statement of the amount and denominations, and for the attest or signature of three of the directors and of the general manager of the reporting bank. Neglect to send in the report of circulation within the first fifteen days of the month succeeding was penalized by a fine of \$50 for each day's delay. Upon the executive council of the association was conferred the power by resolution at any time to direct an inspection of the circulation account of any bank. Further, an annual inspection of the circulation account of every bank of issue in Canada was provided for, and a report of the results to the council, all officers of banks under inspection being obligated to give the inspector of circulation such information and assistance as he might ask. It was also required that printed statements of the circulation returns of all the chartered banks should be forwarded each month to the chief executive of every bank in the Dominion. In the practical conduct of this scheme of inspection and verification, the returns of the banks as to new notes received have been checked up against returns of notes delivered which the bank-note engravers have agreed to furnish.

In the clauses respecting curators the by-laws directed that the remuneration of the curators for services, expenses,

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and disbursements should be fixed from time to time by the executive council. They further directed that in the case of suspension of payment by a bank and the appointment of a curator to supervise its affairs, the president of the association should also appoint a local advisory board, selected, as far as possible, from the higher officers of banks situate in the place of the suspended bank's head office. It became the duty of the curator to advise with this board from time to time, and to obtain the approval of the board before taking any important step in connection with his duties.

Apart from the supervision of circulation accounts thus established and the more exact determination of the procedure in case of suspension, the Canadian Bankers' Association does not appear to have made much effort to develop the functions acquired or to extend the field of activity opened by the legislation of 1900. The report of proceedings of the annual meeting, which had previously been published in the *Journal* of the association and the newspapers of the day with a degree of fulness which made it practically complete, was condensed in 1903 to the baldest sketch. Reports of later meetings were omitted from the journal altogether. The project of competitive papers, discussions, lectures, and examinations seems, for some years, at any rate, to have been abandoned. Already in 1903 a committee, appointed for the purposes of inquiry, reported that they "had failed in arousing sufficient interest to warrant proceeding for the present with the formation of an institute."

While it was still a voluntary organization and not yet, in a sense, a recognized organ of administration, the

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association's efforts were exerted as far as they might be exerted properly, against careless or too liberal insolvency legislation, projects of provincial law injuriously affecting the banks, and the incorporation of loan companies authorized to receive deposits on current account. As an organization, also, the association sought to bring about uniformity in the rate of interest paid upon deposits payable after notice or in savings bank departments, and the reduction of the rate of interest paid by the post-office and government savings banks. A system of bank money orders was devised and established in an effort to meet the competition of the express companies in remittance of minor sums. For some time, but in the end to no purpose, the association opposed the establishment of a branch of the royal mint in the Dominion. In response to a widespread demand, stimulated by the Yukon gold production and by the growth of a national self-consciousness, the government decided in 1901 to appropriate \$75,000 a year to the construction and up-keep of a mint, and by so much to reduce the profit by seigniorage upon silver coin, the average of which, in the preceding decade, had been some \$94,000 a year. On the other hand, the association had been successful in efforts to induce the government to prepare, at the banks' expense, to be sure, quantities of Dominion notes of large denomination, transferable only between the banks and intended for use in settlements or for the service of their reserves. It is a fair inference that notwithstanding the more informal procedure at meetings and the measure of secrecy maintained as to the nature

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of its activities, the efforts of the association since 1902 have been spent in much the same direction as before.

Whether taken year by year, or viewed as a whole, the history of the banks acting under Dominion charter through the years 1889-1908 presents no more striking feature than the extraordinary growth of the banks in point of resources and strength. In capital alone the expansion was from \$60,289,910 in December, 1889, to \$96,457,573 in December, 1908; in rest (surplus) from \$20,371,332 to \$74,427,630; in circulation from \$33,577,700 to \$73,058,234; in total deposits, from \$133,977,011 to \$722,769,156; and in discounts, loans, and advances, from \$170,250,693 to \$546,079,996. The details of this development, condensed from the monthly return to the government to a form like that in which statistics of banking elsewhere have been arranged, are presented year by year in Appendix V. The explanation of the growth, of course, is to be sought in the thousand and one achievements of advance which have marked the economic movement of Canada the past two decades—the increase of product from farm and forest, fishery, and mine, the systematic elaboration of the railway network, the rise of Canadian credit and the influx of foreign and British funds, the powerful impulse given to industry the past ten years, the swift extension of settlement and cultivation over the virgin wheat fields of the Northwest, the heavier immigration consequent upon the practical exhaustion of the free lands of the United States, the enormously larger trade stimulated by the growth of buying power in agriculture, transportation, and com-

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merce, and the augmentation in every direction of the activities of exchange. These were large movements, not yet anywhere adequately described, except in existing sources for some future historian, and not yet, perhaps, sufficiently remote wholly to be understood. But so far as can be judged now, the forward movement of the banks was neither markedly greater nor conspicuously less than the general progress in which they participated and toward which they helped.

From 1889 to 1899 the number of banks remained practically stationary at 38; in the ten years there was scarcely more than \$2,000,000 capital added to their paid-up stock. Rest accounts, however, were augmented by upward of \$9,000,000, and the number of branches within the Dominion from 402 to 663. The banks succeeded, moreover, in doing a considerably heavier business upon but slightly enlarged proprietors' funds. The proportion of capital and rest to total liabilities, 46.98 per cent in 1889, fell to 27.84 at the end of 1899, although the net distribution by way of dividends amounted to but 5.17 per cent upon these funds as against 5.65 per cent ten years before.

In these figures are suggested two of the most conspicuous and closely related phases of the banking movement in all these later years—the fall in banking profits measured by the unit of service, and the wide extension of the territorial distribution of the banks. The explanation of both these phases, and to no inconsiderable extent, also, the cause of them, is undoubtedly to be found in a single factor—competition. It might be, indeed it fre-

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quently is argued, that between a few large banks, managed from two or at most three centers, banks whose executives are in easy reach of each other to arrange such means to temper the strife for business as a monopolistic age might suggest, competition is a factor the influence of which may safely be ignored. And it is often pointed out that since all banks, or practically all banks, allow but 3 per cent interest upon deposits, and generally charge 6 per cent upon commercial and industrial loans, even in the settled districts of the East, there is additional reason for reckoning competition a myth. The fact is, however, that instead of rate cutting in respect of these particulars, the characteristic competition between Canadian banks has appeared in efforts to outdo each other in the facilities offered, it may be the waiver of collection and agency charges—thus sadly impairing the minor profits of a bank—or it may be in the amount of accommodation offered, the ease and convenience of access to the source of loans or office of deposit. Otherwise, it could not be expected that from the provision of one office for every 11,770 of population, the banks would reduce the ratio to one office for every 2,982, as they have reduced it between 1889 and 1908. Otherwise, moreover, it would be unlikely that, with combined capital and rest equal to but 20.82 per cent of their total liabilities in 1908, as compared to 30.32 per cent in 1898 and 46.98 per cent in 1889, they should be dividing but 4.81 per cent upon proprietors' funds now, or more than eight-tenths per cent less than they were dividing in 1889. To such lengths has competition for deposits proceeded, that in latter years it is not uncom-

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mon for the older and larger banks to establish new branches for the sake of \$250,000 to \$400,000 in prospective deposits and the discount business incidental to a community with such a store of savings, while the newer and smaller banks have been known to open offices with scarcely \$150,000 of deposits and but precarious prospect of improvement in sight. Competition for deposits, in the first instance, and, secondarily, competition for good chances to lend such deposits, has been the main cause for the five-fold multiplication of chartered bank offices in less than twenty years. The same competition has been of potent influence upon the movement of discount charges and interest rates. In all this time, the difference in discount rates between communities of comparable population and borrowings, but of different distance from the financial centers, has not exceeded $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 per cent. At the very frontier of settlement or development, where difficulty of access, the cost of maintaining an office, or the small volume of business available make the cost of banking service high, interest is naturally charged at a considerably higher rate than where banking may be conducted at something like a normal expense, though the advance of rate is seldom in proportion to the enhancement of cost. More accurately to indicate the geographical distribution of banking facilities and the consequent advance toward a perfect diffusion of the country's loan fund, there is presented in Appendix IX a table showing the increase of branches in the several provinces since 1889. The number in operation by the several chartered banks since

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confederation, at intervals of five years, is shown in the table herewith:

	1869.	1874.	1879.	1884.	1889.	1894.	1899.	1904.	1908.
Ontario.....	100	148	188	174	231	263	321	549	918
Quebec.....	28	39	45	50	60	102	113	196	311
New Brunswick.....	6	11	13	30	32	29	34	49	58
Nova Scotia.....	13	27	34	51	47	58	74	101	104
Prince Edward Is- land.....	0	0	8	10	6	6	9	10	16
British Columbia.....	0	4	4	3	9	12	41	55	103
Manitoba.....	0	1	3	15	13	24	50	95	162
Northwest Territo- ries.....	0	0	0	2	4	8	19	87	252
Yukon.....							2	3	3
All Canada...	147	230	295	335	402	513	663	1,145	1,927

On December 31, 1908, the 1,927 offices were in 1,054 different places, as compared to 465 offices in 259 different places fifteen years before. Apart from their domestic establishments the banks had been steadily adding to their offices and agencies abroad. At the end of 1908, these outposts had reached the number of 50, 5 being in Newfoundland; 3 in London, England; 1 in France; 1 in Mexico; 16 in the United States; and 24, the establishments of 3 different banks, in Cuba, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and Trinidad.

No clearing house was established in the Dominion until 1887, when the bankers of Halifax first organized to this end. Prior to that time the daily exchanges and settlements were effected by the laborious and tedious method of adjustments between bank and bank. The volume of transactions for settlement, of course, had always been smaller than what would be expected of a system of an equal number of banking offices, each under independent

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control. The settlement between two or between all the branches of the same bank, of course, would be effected in the books of that bank, and is so still, independently of the clearing house. The table of clearings presented in Appendix VIII, therefore, furnishes no just basis for a comparison of Canadian trade and finance, to the volume of business in a community working with numerous local banks. Too much is set off in Canada before the exchanges are ever sent to the clearing house, to permit the actual magnitude of the business to appear.

Following the example of Halifax, similar arrangements were established in Montreal in 1889 and in Toronto and Hamilton in 1893. The clearing houses of Victoria and Vancouver were established in 1898, that of St. John in 1896, those of Ottawa and Quebec in 1901, and of London in 1902. From the year 1903, when the statistics for all these cities first became complete, to 1908, the increase of clearings was from \$2,689,823,000 to \$4,038,808,000.

For ten years, between May 16, 1890, and May 23, 1901, no charter passed the Canadian Parliament for the incorporation of a new bank. The bill approved on the earlier date, being the first charter since 1886, was never used by those who obtained the grant. But with the more rapid broadening of the opportunities, or what men believed were opportunities, for new ventures in the banking field which appeared shortly after the turn of the century, applications for charters and bills to grant them engaged the attention of Parliament at practically every session. Between 1901 and 1908 no less than twenty-one new bank charters were passed, and authority given for \$54,500,000 subscribed stock. Eight corporations out of the twenty-

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one succeeded in raising the capital required before they might open a bank; the authorized capital for these eight amounted to \$16,000,000. The capital actually paid up of the six banks started since 1901 and still doing business was \$6,000,277 on December 31, 1908. The paid-up capital of \$96,457,573, shown as the total in the report of chartered banks on that date, included \$3,000,000 of a bank in liquidation. To the extent of \$23,432,848, therefore, the increase of banking capital of practically \$30,000,000 effected in the ten years 1898-1908 consisted of sums called up by the older banks, practically all of it issued at premiums to correspond to the book values of existing shares.

Small as were the sums collected for new ventures, compared to the contributions to older banks, the mere number of charter grants makes it difficult to believe that anything in the way of a legal monopoly of chartered rights is maintained by the government or parliament of Canada in favor of the banks already in existence. Between 1868 and 1880, as has been seen, thirty charters were granted to new projects; between 1882 and 1888, thirteen; between 1890 and 1908, twenty-two. The total is sixty-five; the number of Dominion bank charters not forfeited for nonuser since 1867 is thirty-two. Entry to the field of issue banking, it would appear, is free in Canada to whomsoever cares to enter it, provided only that his standing is not discreditable and that he or his backers have the cash. If the newcomer, once chartered and established, finds his way beset with difficulties, the circumstance is to be explained, not by any monopoly which his older competitors enjoy, but rather by their

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hold upon the confidence of their clientele, and their possession of a volume of business which enables them to serve their customers at rates the profit in which, derived from transactions of smaller bulk, would be consumed for the most part by expense.

While new banks were being added, old names were being stricken off the Canadian roll. One movement of considerable significance has been the merger, mostly of the smaller banks or corporations to whose activity rather narrow geographical bounds had been set, into institutions which avowedly limit their operations to nothing short of the Dominion, and the international banking relations which may grow out of the country's foreign trade. Three such banks, the Bank of British Columbia (first established under royal charter), the Halifax Banking Company (the incorporated successors of the private bank of issue founded in Nova Scotia in 1825), and the Merchants' Bank of Prince Edward Island, were taken over by the Canadian Bank of Commerce in 1900, 1903, and 1906, respectively, in exchange for stock in the buying bank. In 1903 the Bank of Montreal bought the Exchange Bank of Yarmouth, in 1905 the People's Bank of Halifax, and in 1906 the People's Bank of New Brunswick. The Western Bank of Canada was taken over by the Standard Bank in 1908. The Northern and the Crown banks, chartered, the one in 1903 and the other in 1902, joined forces under the new name of the Northern Crown Bank in 1908. Another bank, first chartered by the province of Prince Edward Island, the Summerside Bank, was sold to the Bank of New Brunswick; the Commercial Bank of Windsor (Nova Scotia),

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to the Union Bank of Halifax (1902). What with an earlier merger, that of the Union Bank of Prince Edward Island with the Bank of Nova Scotia in 1883, failures, and voluntary liquidation, the number of corporations directed from head offices in the maritime provinces has been reduced in twenty years from sixteen or more to four. The St. Stephens Bank and the Bank of New Brunswick are the only banks in the country, the history of which runs further back than 1900, which report capitals of less than a million dollars each. The St. Stephens Bank, with its paid-up stock of \$200,000, remains the only surviving example of the small local banks which were more or less typical of the credit organization of the maritime provinces for many years. Two of the banks domiciled in Nova Scotia and one which formerly had its head office in Halifax have added so much to their resources and so many to their branches that in these particulars they present no contrast to the banks of widely extended operations characteristic of Ontario or Quebec.

Six of the banks acting under Dominion charter have failed since 1889; two others, now in process of winding up, have been obliged by heavy losses to withdraw from business, although, through the help of other banks, it has been possible to conduct their liquidation with open doors. The first of the failures, attributable to ill-advised or incapable administration of the bank's lending resources, and first also in point of time, was that of the Commercial Bank of Manitoba, with its head office in Winnipeg, July 3, 1893. On the date of failure the liabilities amounted to \$1,344,269 and the nominal assets

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to \$1,954,167. Its note circulation, partly as the result of heavy withdrawals by depositors, preceding the failure, had run up to \$419,485, the paid-up capital being then but \$552,650. Ultimately the depositors and other creditors, as well as the note holders, were paid in full. Better to realize upon certain assets through giving the debtors more time than was originally agreed, the liquidator of the bank arranged with other banks, sometime competitors of the Commercial, for a slight extension of the period—sixty days after suspension—within which redemption of all outstanding notes should have been offered. Upon notes the redemption of which was deferred the liquidator continued to pay at the rate of 6 per cent. All but two-fifths of the circulation outstanding had been redeemed by the end of September, and all but a fifth by the end of November. The fact that the other banks accepted the notes of the failed bank freely at par relieved the public of both inconvenience and concern. From the day of suspension on, the notes of the Commercial Bank of Manitoba passed at the value inscribed on their face. The efficacy of the bank circulation redemption fund as a guaranty not only of the ultimate security, but also of the immediate convertibility of bank-note issues, thus established on the occasion of its first trial, has been demonstrated time and again, and in respect of the circulation even of such fraudulently looted concerns as the Banque Ville Marie or the Banque de St. Jean.

Notwithstanding a history that ran back to 1835, and an abundant experience of the mistakes by which prudent bankers might well have been warned, the

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Banque du Peuple found itself obliged to suspend on July 16, 1895. At first it was hoped that resumption could be undertaken within the statutory term. Inquiry developed the existence of overdrafts owing by directors and others to more than 20 per cent in excess of the bank's paid-up stock. The general shareholders in this bank, it will be remembered, were liable only to the amount of their subscriptions. From these, of course, nothing further could be collected, and under the terms of a compromise, the reasons for which are somewhat obscure, but \$300,000 were collected upon the joint, several, and unlimited liability of the principal partners. Under the prior lien the note holders—\$787,000 in round numbers was the sum of their claim—obtained payment in full. Other creditors for \$6,713,000 received but 75¼ per cent and thus lost, over and above interest and discounts accepted in anxious or precipitate realization, some \$1,660,000.

Worse yet, in point of the inadequacy of the assets involved, was the failure of the Banque Ville Marie. Criminal prosecutions were undertaken by the Crown against officers of this bank, and in three of the suits the court took the view that the management had committed gross frauds, sending the general manager and cashier to the penitentiary and releasing another officer on suspended sentence. The note holders were paid in full, but the depositors realized only 17½ per cent on their claims, the total liabilities at suspension, July 25, 1899, being \$1,951,346. Another French bank, in the administration of which corruption and criminal fraud were revealed by judicial inquiry, the Banque de St. Jean, failed April 28,

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1908—the *Ville Marie* had a capital of \$479,620 at suspension; this concern but \$316,386. To the extent of nearly \$600,000 its resources had been squandered upon most precarious and unpromising ventures, in great part to the personal speculations of the president. On April 30, 1908, its notes in circulation were \$219,334.

No loss was suffered by creditors on such claims, but whether anything whatever is paid to creditors other than the government (the government claim was \$43,016) depends upon what success may follow the efforts of the liquidator to collect the double liability from holders of the stock. A number of the shareholders are resisting the liquidator in the courts. The deposits, other than government deposits, amounted at the time of failure to \$296,988.

As a consequence of loans to one firm out of all proportion to its own means, the Bank of Yarmouth, one of the more or less local banks domiciled in Nova Scotia, was obliged to close its doors March 6, 1905. A considerable recovery after their failure from the assets of the bank's principal debtors made it possible to pay off depositors as well as note holders in full. The sums involved were not large at the worst, the total assets of the bank at the time of its failure, March 6, 1905, being \$820,143, and its liabilities on all scores, except capital stock (\$300,000) but \$479,323.

In the spring of 1908 the fact that the *Banque de St. Hyacinthe* was under large advances to the Southern Counties Railway became generally known and, in the form that the information gained currency, raised doubts as to the liquid condition of the bank's assets. The rail-

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way was sold to the Delaware and Hudson Company, the money for it paid into court. Pending the result of certain suits a considerable proportion of the bank's resources was locked up. On June 23 the bank was obliged to suspend payment. Apart from a capital stock of \$331,235, it had liabilities at the time of suspension of \$1,182,362; its nominal assets were \$1,580,097; the notes in circulation were about \$250,000. These, of course, were promptly redeemed; a dividend of 25 per cent has already been paid depositors, and if the issue of the pending litigation is at all favorable to the bank, as there is ground to believe it will be, it is likely that the depositors will be paid the whole sum of their claims.

The record of Canadian bank mortality for recent years, thus far set forth, has been concerned with the troubles of comparatively small and more or less insignificant members of the system. The reason for this is close at hand—none but small banks have failed. In point of indebtedness involved or of probable loss to the shareholders, however, two other bank disasters of this period, in neither of which the threatened bank was permitted to go to failure, were more serious than any yet detailed. One of these was the collapse of the Ontario Bank, first organized in 1857, on October 13, 1906. A general manager, later sentenced to the penitentiary, had been put in charge of the bank some years earlier, in the hope that he would be able to restore to the institution the prestige and resources lost through the ill-advised and injudicious administration of the bank's assets under his predecessor. One way the new man set about to compass this task was to speculate with the bank's funds and on the bank's behalf in its own stock

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and in the shares and other securities handled on the New York Stock Exchange. In the course of transactions amounting to more than \$100,000,000, between 1898 and 1906, he incurred losses of \$1,500,000. Over \$230,000 was lost in the effort to support by purchase the local market for the shares of the bank. Some \$233,000 was subsequently lost in realizing upon securities bought in New York. The certainty of the bank's going into bankruptcy, unless something were done, became clear on October 12, 1906. The executives of the larger and stronger institutions were unwilling that an estate with liabilities of \$15,229,685, and nominal assets of \$17,432,177, should be liquidated otherwise than with open doors. The Bank of Montreal accordingly agreed to take over the assets and assume the liabilities of the Ontario Bank, on conditions that provided for other banks standing part of the loss should the assets finally appear to be less than the debts. Nearly three years were spent in winding up the estate. The capital stock and rest of \$2,200,000 were both absorbed in spite of the realization of 92.58 per cent upon loans and overdue debts amounting on October 12, 1906, to \$13,116,000. Note holders were paid in full, and depositors either got the face of their claims or accepted instead the obligations of the Bank of Montreal. The shareholders, however, have been asked to contribute \$576,000 upon their liability, in case of insolvency, to pay additional sums equal to the par value of their subscribed stock. Whether they do so pay depends upon the issue of suits now pending before the courts.

Established in 1901, and thus one of the first of the new banks to be organized in the latest period of marked

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prosperity, the Sovereign Bank of Canada shortly acquired standing, or at any rate attention, as one of the most aggressive, energetic, and seemingly successful of the younger institutions in the field. As the result of systematic efforts on the part of its executive, efforts the nature and ingenuity of which put them among the most diverting minor episodes of Canadian bank promotion a stately share of the bank's stock—a new issue of about a million and a half—was sold, partly to one of the leading financial houses of New York and partly to one of the German securities banks. With this help the capital of the Sovereign was raised to nearly \$4,000,000; the rest, for the stock was put out at a premium, to \$1,250,000. Thenceforward the game of expansion, both in volume of business and in number of offices, proceeded even more merrily than before. Events showed later on that much of the borrowers' business attracted to the bank was of a highly undesirable description; that in order to make an extraordinary showing the management had time and again accepted unjustifiable risks. Among the assets of twenty-five millions odd reported at the end of April, 1907, from some ninety branches there was paper so bad or so well-nigh hopelessly doubtful as to put the future of the bank and the property of the shareholders into the gravest kind of peril. A careful valuation of these assets undertaken by experienced officers of another bank convinced them, however, that by appropriating the whole of the rest and a million of the capital, losses already or likely to be incurred would be amply covered. Their recommendations were carried out.

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With a new president, general manager, and inspector, and with a number of changes in the staffs of the branches, the bank was embarked upon the effort to conduct its business along saner and safer, if less enterprising, lines than before. But although these changes gave the bank a chance to effect a reduction of five millions in its total liabilities between April and December, 1907, they were yet insufficient either to restore confidence in the venture or to keep the bank on its feet as a going concern. The middle of January, 1908, bankers in Toronto and Montreal were asked to consult upon the Sovereign's plight. Primarily to avoid a shock to credit, but also to prevent embarrassment to numerous commercial depositors and discount customers at places where the bank had offices, twelve of the other banks undertook to supply ready cash in the sum of \$3,750,000 to meet the Sovereign's immediate needs. They also undertook to liquidate the bank's assets and to assume its liabilities. Such loss as might occur in the process was to be borne by the guaranteeing banks in proportion to the amounts respectively pledged by them to the fund of cash. Involved in this voluntary liquidation were \$18,594,357 of nominal assets and \$15,544,534 of liabilities other than capital stock. For all purposes of the public the branches of the Sovereign Bank became on January 18, 1908, the offices of that particular one of the twelve guaranteeing banks by which they had been assumed or to which they had been allotted for the purpose of winding up. Somewhere between half and three-quarters of a million deficiency is not unlikely to appear in the final stages of the liquidation. Such a

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sum, and considerably more, could be collected upon the double liability of solvent shareholders. So far as can be judged now, therefore, there is small prospect of any losses falling upon the guaranteeing banks.

APPENDIX I.

THE FIRST DOMINION BANK ACT.^a

AN ACT Relating to banks and banking.

[34 Vict., chap. v.]

[Assented to 14th April, 1871.]

Whereas, it is desirable that the provisions relating to the incorporation of banks, and the laws relating to banking, should be embraced, as far as practicable, in one general act: Therefore, Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

1. The charters or acts of incorporation of the several banks enumerated in the schedule to this act (including any amendments thereof now in force) are continued as to their incorporation, the amount of capital stock, the amount of each share of such stock, and the chief place of business of each, respectively, until the first day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and eighty-one, subject to the right of any such bank to increase its capital stock in the manner hereinafter provided; and as to other particulars the said charters are continued without being subject to any of the provisions of this act, except those contained in sections four, thirty-nine to fifty-four, both inclusive, and sixty to sixty-eight, both inclusive, until the first day of July, in the present year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one; and from and after the day last mentioned, the said charters are continued, subject to the provisions of this act,

^a Acts of the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada, 1871. Ottawa, 1871. pp. 24-47

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until the end of the then next session of Parliament; and from and after the end of such session this act shall form and be the charters of the said banks, respectively, until the first day of July, 1881, and the provisions thereof shall apply to each of them, respectively, and their present charters shall be repealed, except only as to the matters for which the said charters are above continued until the day last aforesaid.

2. The provisions of this act shall apply to any bank to be hereafter incorporated (which expression in this act includes any bank incorporated by any act passed in the present session or in any future session of the Parliament of Canada) whether this act is specially mentioned in its act of incorporation or not, as well as to all banks whose charters are hereby continued, but not to any other, unless extended to it under the special provisions hereinafter made.

3. The capital stock of any new bank, the amount of each share, the name of the bank, and the place where its chief office shall be situate, shall be declared in the act of incorporation of any bank to be hereafter incorporated.

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

4. The bank may open branches or agencies and offices of discount and deposit and transact business at any place or places in the Dominion.

5. The capital stock of the bank may be increased, from time to time, by the shareholders at any annual general meeting, or any general meeting specially called for that purpose; and such increase may be agreed on by such proportions at a time as the shareholders shall determine, and shall be decided by the majority of the votes of the shareholders present at such meeting in person or by proxy.

6. Any of the original unsubscribed capital stock, or the increased stock of a bank, shall, when the directors so determine, be allotted to the then shareholders of the bank

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pro rata, and at such rate as shall be fixed by the directors, provided always that no fraction of a share shall be so allotted; and any of such allotted stock as shall not be taken up by the shareholder to whom such allotment has been made, within three months from the time when notice of the allotment has been mailed to his address, may be opened for subscription to the public, in such manner and on such terms as the directors shall prescribe.

7. No bank to be hereafter incorporated, unless it be otherwise provided by its charter, shall issue notes or commence the business of banking until five hundred thousand dollars of capital have been bona fide subscribed and one hundred thousand dollars have been bona fide paid up, nor until it shall have obtained from the treasury board a certificate to that effect, which certificate shall be granted by the treasury board when it is proved to their satisfaction that such amounts of capital have been bona fide subscribed and paid, respectively; and if at least two hundred thousand dollars of the subscribed capital of such bank has not been paid up before it shall have commenced business, such further amount as shall be required to complete the said sum shall be called in and paid up within two years thereafter, and it shall not be necessary that more than two hundred thousand dollars of the stock of any bank, whether incorporated before or after the passing of this act, be paid up within any limited period from the date of its incorporation.

8. The amount of notes intended for circulation, issued by the bank and outstanding at any time, shall never exceed the amount of its unimpaired paid-up capital. No such note for a less sum than four dollars shall be issued or reissued by the bank, and all notes for a less sum heretofore issued shall be called in and cancelled as soon as may be practicable.

9. The bank shall always receive in payment its own notes at par at any of its offices and whether they be made

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payable there or not; but shall not be bound to redeem them in specie or Dominion notes at any place other than where they are made payable. The place, or one of the places, at which the notes of the bank shall be made payable shall always be its chief seat of business.

10. No dividend or bonus shall ever be made so as to impair the paid-up capital, and if any dividend or bonus be so made, the directors knowingly and willfully concurring therein, shall be jointly and severally liable for the amount thereof, as a debt due by them to the bank; and if any part of the paid-up capital be lost, the directors shall, if all the subscribed stock be not paid up, forthwith make calls upon the shareholders to an amount equivalent to such loss, and such loss (and the calls, if any) shall be mentioned in the return then next made by the bank to the government; provided that in any case where the capital has been impaired, as aforesaid, all net profits shall be applied to make good such loss.

11. No division of profits, either by way of dividends or bonus, or both combined, or in any other way, exceeding the rate of eight per cent per annum, shall be paid by the bank, unless, after paying the same, it shall have a rest or reserved fund equal to at least twenty per cent of its paid-up capital, deducting all bad and doubtful debts before calculating the amount of such rest.

12. Certified lists of the shareholders (or of the principal partners, if the bank be en commandite), with their additions and residences, and the number of shares they respectively hold, shall be laid before Parliament every year, within fifteen days after the opening of the session.

13. Monthly returns shall be made by the bank to the government in the following form, and shall be made up within the first ten days of each month, and shall exhibit the condition of the bank on the last juridical day of the month preceding; and such monthly returns shall be signed by the president or vice-president, or the director

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(or, if the bank be en commandite, the principal partner) then acting as president, and by the manager, cashier, or other principal officer of the bank at its chief seat of business:

Return of the amount of liabilities and assets of the ----- bank, on the ----- day of -----, A. D. 18--.

[CAPITAL AUTHORIZED, \$... CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED, \$... CAPITAL PAID UP, \$...]

LIABILITIES.

\$ cts.

1. Notes in circulation-----
2. Government deposits payable on demand-----
3. Other deposits payable on demand-----
4. Government deposits payable after notice, or on a fixed day--
5. Other deposits payable after notice, or on a fixed day-----
6. Due to other banks in Canada-----
7. Due to other banks or agents not in Canada-----
8. Liabilities not included under the foregoing heads-----

ASSETS.

\$ cts.

1. Specie-----
2. Provincial or Dominion notes-----
3. Notes of and cheques on other banks-----
4. Balances due from other banks in Canada-----
5. Balances due from other banks or agents not in Canada-----
6. Government debentures or stock-----
7. Loans to the governments of the Dominion and of any of the provinces, respectively-----
8. Loans, discounts, or advances on current account to corporations-----
9. Notes and bills discounted and current-----
10. Notes and bills discounted, overdue, and not specially secured-----
11. Overdue debts secured by mortgage or other deed on real estate, or by deposit of or lien on stock, or by other securities-----
12. Real estate the property of the bank (other than the bank premises) and mortgages on real estate sold by the bank--
13. Bank premises-----
14. Other assets not included under the foregoing heads-----

We declare that the foregoing return is made up from the books of the bank, and that it is correct to the best of our knowledge and belief.

(Place) this ---- day of -----, 18--.

A. B., *President, &c.*

C. D., *Cashier, &c.*

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14. The bank shall always hold, as nearly as may be practicable, one-half of its cash reserves in dominion notes and the proportion of such reserves held in dominion notes shall never be less than one-third thereof.

15. Every bank to which this act applies shall be exempt from the tax now imposed on the average amount of its notes in circulation, to which other banks will continue liable, and from the obligation to hold any portion of its capital in government debentures or debentures of any kind.

16. The receiver-general shall make such arrangements as may be necessary for ensuring the delivery of dominion notes to any bank in exchange for an equivalent amount of specie at the several offices at which dominion notes will be redeemable, in the cities of Toronto, Montreal, Halifax, and St. John (N. B.), respectively.

INTERNAL REGULATIONS.

Shares and shareholders.

17. Books of subscription may be opened, and shares of the capital stock of the bank may be made transferable, and the dividends accruing thereon may be made payable, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in like manner as such shares and dividends are respectively made transferable and payable at the head office of the bank; and to that end the directors may from time to time determine the proportion of the shares which shall be so transferable in the United Kingdom and make such rules and regulations and prescribe such forms and appoint such agent or agents as they may deem necessary.

18. The shares of the capital stock shall be paid in by such installments and at such times and places as the directors shall appoint, and executors, administrators, and curators paying the installments upon the shares of de-

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ceased shareholders shall be and are respectively indemnified for paying the same: *Provided always*, That no share or shares shall be held to be lawfully subscribed for unless a sum equal to at least ten per centum on the amount subscribed for be actually paid at the time or within thirty days after the time of subscribing.

19. The shares of the capital stock of the bank shall be held and adjudged to be personal estate, and shall be assignable and transferable at the chief place of business of the bank, or at any of its branches which the directors shall appoint for that purpose, and according to such form as the directors shall prescribe; but no assignment or transfer shall be valid unless it be made and registered and accepted by the party to whom the transfer is made, in a book or books to be kept by the directors for that purpose, nor until the person or persons making the same shall, if required by the bank, previously discharge all debts or liabilities due by him, her, or them to the bank which may exceed in amount the remaining stock, if any, belonging to such person or persons, and no fractional part or parts of a share, or less than a whole share, shall be assignable or transferable; and when any share or shares of the said capital stock shall have been sold under a writ of execution, the sheriff by whom the writ shall have been executed shall, within thirty days after the sale, leave with the cashier, manager, or other officer of the bank, an attested copy of the writ, with the certificate of such sheriff endorsed thereon, certifying to whom the sale has been made, and thereupon (but not until after all debts or liabilities due by the holder or holders of the shares to the bank shall have been discharged as aforesaid), the president or vice-president, manager, or cashier of the bank, shall execute the transfer of the share or shares so sold to the purchaser; and such transfer being duly accepted, shall be to all intents and purposes as valid and effectual in law as if it had been executed by the holder or

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holders of the said share or shares, any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

20. A list of all transfers of shares registered each day in the books of the bank, showing the parties to such transfers and the number of shares transferred in each case, shall be made up at the end of each day and kept at the chief office of the bank for the inspection of its shareholders.

21. If the interest in any share or shares in the capital stock becomes transmitted in consequence of the death or bankruptcy or insolvency of any shareholder, or in consequence of the marriage of a female shareholder, or by any other lawful means than by a transfer according to the provisions of this act, such transmission shall be authenticated by a declaration in writing, as hereinafter mentioned, or in such other manner as the directors of the bank shall require, and every such declaration shall distinctly state the manner in which, and the party to whom, such shares shall have been transmitted, and shall be by such party made and signed; and every such declaration shall be by the party making and signing the same acknowledged before a judge of a court of record, or before the mayor, provost, or chief magistrate of a city, town, borough, or other place, or before a public notary, where the same shall be made and signed; and every declaration so signed and acknowledged shall be left with the cashier, manager, or other officer, or agent of the bank, who shall thereupon enter the name of the party entitled under such transmission in the registry of shareholders; and until such transmission shall have been so authenticated no party or person claiming by virtue of any such transmission shall be entitled to receive any share of the profits of the bank, or to vote in respect of any such share or shares: *Provided always*, That every such declaration and instrument as by this and the following section of this act is required to perfect the transmission of a share or shares in the bank

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which shall be made in any other country than Canada, or some other of the British colonies in North America, or in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall be further authenticated by the British consul or vice-consul, or other the accredited representative of the British Government in the country where the declaration shall be made, or shall be made directly before such British consul or vice-consul or other accredited representative: *And provided also*, That nothing in this act contained shall be held to debar the directors, cashier, or other officer or agent of the bank from requiring corroborative evidence of any fact or facts alleged in any such declaration.

22. If the transmission of any share of the capital stock be by virtue of the marriage of a female shareholder, the declaration shall be accompanied by a copy of the register of such marriage, or other particulars of the celebration thereof, and shall declare the identity of the wife with the holder of such share, and shall be made and signed by such female shareholder and her husband; and it shall be competent to them to include therein a declaration to the effect that the share transmitted is the sole property, and under the sole control of the wife, that she may receive and grant receipts for the dividends and profits accruing in respect thereof, and dispose of and transfer the share itself, without requiring the consent or authority of her husband; and such declaration shall be binding upon the bank and the parties making the same, until the said parties shall see fit to revoke it by a written notice to that effect to the bank; and further, the omission of a statement in any such declaration, that the wife making the same is duly authorized by her husband to make the same, shall not cause the declaration to be deemed either illegal or informal; any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

23. If the transmissions have taken place by virtue of any testamentary instrument, or by intestacy, the probate of the will, or any letters of administration, or act of

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curatorship, or an official extract therefrom, shall, together with such declaration, be produced and left with the cashier, or other officer or agent of the bank, who shall, thereupon, enter the name of the party entitled under such transmission, in the register of shareholders.

24. If the transmission of any share or shares of the capital stock of the bank be by the decease of any shareholder, the production to the directors and the deposit with them of any authenticated copy of the probate of the will of the deceased shareholder, or of letters of administration of his estate granted by any court in the Dominion having power to grant such probate or letters of administration, or by any prerogative, diocesan, or peculiar court or authority in England, Wales, Ireland, or any British colony, or of any testamentary or testamentary, expedite in Scotland, or, if the deceased shareholder shall have died out of Her Majesty's dominions, the production to and deposit with the directors of any authenticated copy of the probate of his or her will or letters of administration of his or her property, or other documents of like import granted by any court or authority having the requisite power in such matters, shall be sufficient justification and authority to the directors for paying any dividend, or transferring, or authorizing the transfer, of any share or shares, in pursuance of and in conformity to such probate, letters of administration, or other such document as aforesaid.

25. Whenever the interest in any share or shares of the capital stock of the bank shall be transmitted by the death of any shareholder or otherwise, or whenever the ownership of or legal right of possession in any such share or shares shall change by any lawful means other than by transfer, according to the provisions of this act, and the directors of the bank shall entertain reasonable doubts as to the legality of any claim to and upon such share or shares of stock, then, and in such case, it shall be lawful

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for the bank to make and file in one of the superior courts of law or equity in the province in which the head office of the bank is situated, a declaration and petition in writing, addressed to the justices of the court, setting forth the facts and the number of shares previously belonging to the party in whose name such shares stand in the books of the bank, and praying for an order or judgment adjudicating and awarding the said shares to the party or parties legally entitled to the same, and by which order or judgment the bank shall be guided and held fully harmless and indemnified and released from all and every other claim for the said shares or arising therefrom: *Provided always*, That notice of such petition shall be given to the party claiming such share or shares, or to the attorney of such party duly authorized for the purpose, who shall, upon the filing of such petition, establish his right to the several shares referred to in such petition; and the delays to plead and all other proceedings in such cases shall be the same as those observed in analogous cases before the said superior courts: *Provided also*, That the costs and expenses of procuring such order and adjudication shall be paid by the party or parties to whom the said shares shall be declared lawfully to belong, and such shares shall not be transferred until such costs and expenses be paid, saving the recourse of such party against any party contesting his right.

26. The bank shall not be bound to see to the execution of any trust, whether expressed, implied, or constructive, to which any of the shares of its stock shall be subject, and the receipt of the party in whose name any such share shall stand in the books of the bank, or, if it stands in the name of more parties than one, the receipt of one of the parties, shall be a sufficient discharge to the bank for any dividend or any other sum of money payable in respect of such share, unless express notice to the contrary has been given to the bank; and the bank shall not be bound

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to see to the application of the money paid upon such receipt, whether given by one of such parties or all of them.

27. Each shareholder in the bank shall, on all occasions on which the votes of the shareholders are to be taken, have one vote for each share held by him for at least thirty days before the time of meeting. Shareholders may vote by proxy, but no person but a shareholder shall be permitted to vote or act as such proxy; and no manager, cashier, bank clerk, or other subordinate officer of the bank shall vote either in person or by proxy, or hold a proxy for that purpose. All questions proposed for the consideration of the said shareholders shall be determined by the majority of their votes; the chairman elected to preside at any such meeting of the said shareholders shall vote as a shareholder only, unless there be a tie, in which case (except as to the election of a director) he shall have a casting vote; and where two or more persons are joint holders of shares, it shall be lawful that one only of such joint holders be empowered by letter of attorney from the other joint holder or holders, or a majority of them, to represent the said shares, and vote accordingly; and in all cases when the votes of the shareholders are taken the voting shall be by ballot.

28. The shareholders in the bank shall have power to regulate by by-law the following matters incident to the management and administration of the affairs of the bank, viz: The qualification, and number of the directors, which shall not be less than five nor more than ten, and the quorum thereof; the method of filling up vacancies in the board of directors whenever the same may occur during each year; and the time and proceedings for the election of directors, in case of a failure of any election on the day appointed for it—the remuneration of the president, vice-president and other directors; and the closing of the transfer book during a certain time not exceeding fifteen days, before the payment of each semiannual divi-

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dend: *Provided*, That no director shall hold less than three thousand dollars of the stock of the bank, when the paid-up capital thereof is one million dollars or less, nor less than four thousand dollars of stock when the paid-up capital thereof is over one million and does not exceed three millions, nor less than five thousand dollars of stock when the paid-up capital thereof exceeds three millions; the directors shall be elected annually by the shareholders and shall be eligible for re-election: *Provided*, That the foregoing provisions, touching directors, shall not apply to a bank en commandite, which shall in these matters be governed by the provisions of its charter. The shareholders (or if the bank be en commandite, the principal partners), may also regulate by by-law the amount of discounts or loans which may be made to directors (or if the bank be en commandite to the principal partners), either jointly or severally or to any one firm or person, or to any shareholder or to corporations: *Provided*, That until it is otherwise ordered by by-law under this section, the by-laws of the bank on any matter which can be regulated by by-law under this section shall remain in force, except as to the qualification of directors as to which they shall remain in force until the next annual general meeting of the shareholders, after the first day of July, 1871, after which no person shall be a director unless he possesses the number of shares hereby required or such greater number as may be required by any by-law in that behalf.

29. Any number not less than twenty-five of the shareholders of the bank who together may be proprietors of at least one-tenth of the paid up capital stock of the bank by themselves or by their proxies, or the directors of the bank or any four of them, shall have power at any time to call a special general meeting of the shareholders of the bank to be held at their usual place of meeting upon giving six weeks previous public notice, specifying in such notice the object or objects of such meeting; and if the object of

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any such special general meeting be to consider of the proposed removal of the president, or vice-president, or of a director or directors of the said bank for maladministration or other specified and apparently just cause, then if a majority of the votes of the shareholders of such meeting be given for such removal, a director or directors to replace him or them shall be elected or appointed in the manner provided in the by-laws of the bank, or if there be no by-laws providing therefor then by the shareholders at such meeting; and if it be the president or vice-president who shall be removed, his office shall be filled up by the directors (in the manner provided in case of a vacancy occurring in the office of president or vice-president) who shall choose or elect a director to serve as such president.

President and directors.

30. The stock, property, affairs, and concerns of the bank shall be managed by a board of directors, the number to be fixed as herein provided, who shall choose from among themselves a president and vice-president; the directors shall be natural born or naturalized subjects of Her Majesty, and shall be elected on such day in each year as may be or may have been appointed by the charter or by any by-law of the bank, and at such time of the day and at such place where the head office of the bank is situate, as a majority of directors for the time being shall appoint; and public notice shall be given by the directors, by publishing the same at least four weeks in a newspaper of the place where the said head office is situate, previous to the time of holding such election; and the election shall be held and made by such of the shareholders of the bank as have paid all calls made by the directors and as shall attend for the purpose in their own proper persons or by proxy, and all elections for directors shall be by ballot, and the said proxies shall only be capable of being held and voted upon by shareholders then present, and the per-

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sons, to the number fixed by by-law, as hereinbefore provided, who have the greatest number of votes at any election, shall be directors: *Provided*, That if it should happen at any election that two or more persons have an equal number of votes, and the election or nonelection of one or more of such persons as a director or directors depends on such equality, then the directors who shall have had a greater number, or the majority of them, shall determine which of the said persons so having an equal number of votes shall be the director or directors, so as to complete the full number; and in case of a vacancy occurring in the number of directors, such vacancy shall be filled in the manner provided by the by-laws, but the non-filling of the vacancy shall not vitiate the acts of a quorum of the remaining directors; and if the vacancy so created shall be that of a president or vice-president, the directors at the first meeting, after completion of their number, shall, from among themselves, elect a president or vice-president, who shall continue in office for the remainder of the year. And the said directors, as soon as may be after the said election, shall proceed in like manner to elect by ballot two of their number to be president and vice president: *Provided always*, That no person shall be eligible to be or continue a director unless he shall hold, in his name and for his own use, stock in the said bank to the amount hereinbefore provided.

31. In case it should happen that an election of directors should not be made on any day when it ought to have been made, the corporation shall not for that cause be deemed to be dissolved, but it shall be lawful on any other day to hold and make an election of directors in such manner as shall have been provided by the by-laws made by the shareholders in that behalf; and the directors then in office shall remain so until a new election shall be made.

32. At all meetings of the directors of the bank not less than three of them shall constitute a board or quorum for

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the transaction of business; and at the said meetings the president, or in his absence the vice-president, or in their absence one of the directors present, to be chosen pro tempore, shall preside; and the president, vice-president, or president pro tempore so presiding shall vote as a director, and if there be an equal division on any question shall have a casting vote.

33. The directors for the time being, or a majority of them, shall have power to make such by-laws and regulations (not repugnant to the provisions of this act or the laws of the Dominion of Canada) as to them shall appear needful and proper touching the management and disposition of the stock, property, estate, and effects of the bank, and touching the duties and conduct of the officers, clerks, and servants employed therein, and all such other matters as appertain to the business of a bank, and shall also have power to appoint as many officers, clerks, and servants for carrying on the said business, and with such salaries and allowances as to them may seem meet; and they may also appoint a director or directors for any branch of the bank: *Provided always*, That before permitting any cashier, officer, clerk, or servant of the bank to enter upon the duties of his office, the directors shall require him to give bond or other security to the satisfaction of the directors for the due and faithful performance of his duties: *Provided also*, That all by-laws of the bank lawfully made before the passing of this act as to any matter respecting which the directors can make by-laws under this section (including any by-laws for establishing a guarantee fund for the employees of the bank) shall remain in force until they are repealed or altered by others made under this act.

34. The directors shall have power to make such calls of money from the several shareholders for the time being upon the shares subscribed for in the bank by them respectively as they may find necessary, and in the cor-

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porate name of the bank to sue for, recover, and get in all such calls, or to cause and declare such shares to be forfeited to the bank in case of non-payment of any such call; and an action may be brought to recover any money due on any such call, and it shall not be necessary to set forth the special matter in the declaration, but it shall be sufficient to allege that the defendant is holder of one share or more, as the case may be, in the capital stock of the bank, and is indebted to the bank for a call or calls upon such share or shares in the sum to which the call or calls amount, as the case may be, stating the amount and number of such calls whereby an action hath accrued to the bank to recover the same from such defendant by virtue of this act; and it shall be sufficient to maintain such action, to prove by any one witness (a shareholder being competent), that the defendant, at the time of making any such call, was a shareholder in the number of shares alleged, and to produce the by-law or resolution of the directors making and prescribing such call, and to prove notice thereof, given in conformity with such by-law or resolution; and it shall not be necessary to prove the appointment of the directors or any other matter whatsoever; provided that such calls shall be made at intervals of not less than thirty days, and upon notice to be given at least thirty days prior to the day on which such call shall be payable; and no such call shall exceed ten per cent of each share subscribed.

35. Provided also, that if any shareholder or shareholders refuse or neglect to pay any or either of the instalments upon his, her, or their shares of the said capital stock at the time or times appointed by such call, as aforesaid, such shareholder or shareholders shall incur a forfeiture to the use of the bank of a sum of money equal to ten per centum on the amount of such shares; and, moreover, it shall be lawful for the directors of the bank (without any previous formality other than thirty days'

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public notice of their intention), to sell at public auction the said shares, or so many of the said shares as shall, after deducting the reasonable expenses of the sale, yield a sum of money sufficient to pay the unpaid instalments due on the remainder of the said shares and the amount of forfeitures incurred upon the whole; and the president or vice-president, manager or cashier, of the bank shall execute the transfer to the purchaser of the shares of stock so sold; and such transfer being accepted, shall be as valid and effectual in law as if the same had been executed by the original holder or holders of the shares of stock thereby transferred: *Provided always*, That nothing in this section contained shall be held to debar the directors, or the shareholders at a general meeting, from remitting either in whole or in part, and conditionally or unconditionally, any forfeiture incurred by the nonpayment of instalments as aforesaid, or to prevent the bank from enforcing the payment of any call or calls by suit in lieu of forfeiting the same.

36. At every annual meeting of the shareholders for the election of directors, the outgoing directors shall submit a clear and full statement of the affairs of the bank, containing on the one part the amount of the capital stock paid in, the amount of notes of the bank in circulation and net profits made, the balances due to other banks and institutions, and the cash deposited in the bank, distinguishing deposits bearing interest from those not bearing interest—and on the other part, the amount of the current coin, the gold and silver bullion, and the amount of Dominion notes in the vaults of the bank, the balances due to the bank from other banks and institutions, the value of the real and other property of the bank, and the amount of debts owing to the bank, including and particularizing the amounts so owing upon bills of exchange, discounted notes, mortgages, and other securities—thus exhibiting on the one hand the liabilities

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of, or the debts due by the bank, and on the other hand the assets and resources thereof; and the said statement shall also exhibit the rate and amount of the last dividend declared by the directors, the amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring the said dividend, and the amount of debts due to the bank, over due and not paid, with an estimate of the loss which will probably accrue thereon.

37. The books, correspondence and funds of the bank shall at all times be subject to the inspection of the directors; but no shareholder not being a director shall be allowed to inspect the account of any person dealing with the bank.

38. It shall be the duty of the directors of the bank to make half-yearly dividends of so much of the profits of the bank as to the majority of them may seem advisable and not inconsistent with the provisions of sections ten and eleven of this act; and to give public notice of the payment of such dividends at least thirty days previously.

POWERS AND OBLIGATIONS OF THE BANK.

Loans, interest, advances on warehouse receipts, &c.

39. The bank shall have the power to acquire and hold real and immovable estate for its actual use and occupation and the management of its business, and to sell or dispose of the same, and to acquire other property in its stead, for the same purposes.

40. The bank shall not, either directly or indirectly, lend money or make advances upon the security, mortgage, or hypothecation of any lands or tenements, or of any ships or other vessels, nor upon the security or pledge of any share or shares of the capital stock of the bank, or of any goods, wares, or merchandize, except as authorized in this act; nor shall the bank, either directly or indirectly, deal

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in the buying and selling or bartering of goods, wares, or merchandize, or engage or be engaged in any trade whatever, except as a dealer in gold and silver bullion, bills of exchange, discounting of promissory notes and negotiable securities, and in such trade generally as appertains to the business of banking.

41. The bank may take, hold, and dispose of mortgages and hypothèques upon personal as well as real property, by way of additional security for debts contracted to the bank in the course of its business; and the rights, powers, and privileges which the bank is hereby declared to have or to have had in respect of real estate mortgaged to it shall be held and possessed by it, in respect of any personal estate which may be mortgaged or hypothecated to it.

42. The bank may purchase any lands or real estate offered for sale under execution at the suit of the bank, or exposed to sale by the bank under a power of sale given to it for that purpose, in cases where, under similar circumstances, an individual could so purchase, without any restriction as to the value of the lands which it may so purchase, and may acquire a title thereto as any individual purchasing at sheriff's sale or under a power of sale, in like circumstances, could do, and may take, have, hold, and dispose of the same at pleasure.

43. The bank may acquire and hold an absolute title in or to land mortgaged to it as security for a debt due or owing to it, either by obtaining a release of the equity of redemption in the mortgaged property, or by procuring a foreclosure in any court of chancery or of equity, or by other means whereby, as between individuals, an equity of redemption can by law be barred, and may purchase and acquire any prior mortgage or charge on such land.

44. Nothing in any charter, act, or law shall be construed as ever having prevented or as preventing the bank from acquiring and holding an absolute title to and in any such mortgaged lands, whatever the value thereof may be

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or from exercising or acting upon any power of sale contained in any mortgage given to it or held by it, authorizing or enabling it to sell or convey away any lands so mortgaged.

45. The words "goods, wares, and merchandize" when used in the six next following sections of this act, shall be held to comprise in addition to the things usually understood thereby, timber, boards, deals, staves, and other lumber, and also all agricultural produce.

46. The bank may acquire and hold any cove receipt or any receipt by a cove keeper, or by the keeper of any wharf, yard, harbor, or other place, any bill of lading, any specification of timber, or any receipt given for cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize stored or deposited in any cove, wharf, yard, harbor, warehouse, mill, or other place in Canada, or shipped in any vessel or delivered to any carrier for carriage from any place whatever to any part of this Dominion, or through the same or on the waters bordering thereon, or from the same to any other place whatsoever, and whether such cereal grains are to be delivered upon such receipt in species or converted into flour, as collateral security for the due payment of any bill of exchange or note discounted by such bank in the regular course of its banking business, or for any debt which may become due to the bank under any credit opened or liability incurred by the bank for or on behalf of the holder or owner of such bill of lading, specification, or receipt, or for any other debt to become due to the bank; and such bill of lading, specification, or receipt, being so acquired, shall vest in the bank from the date of the acquisition thereof all the right and title of the last previous holder thereof, and if such holder be the agent of the owner, within the meaning of the fifty-ninth chapter of the consolidated statutes of the late Province of Canada, then all the right and title of the owner thereof to or in such cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize, subject to his right to have the same re-transferred to him, if such bill,

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note, or debt be paid when due; and in the event of the non-payment of such bill or note or debt when due, such bank may sell the said cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize and retain the net proceeds, or so much thereof as will be equal to the amount due to the bank upon such bill or debt or note, with interest and costs, returning the overplus, if any, to the person from whom such instrument was acquired by the bank.

47. No transfer of any such bill of lading, specification of timber, or receipt shall be made under this act to secure the payment of any bill, note, or debt, unless such bill, note, or debt be negotiated or contracted at the time of the acquisition thereof by the bank, or upon the understanding that such bill of lading, specification of timber, or receipt would be transferred to the bank, but such bill, note, or debt may be renewed, or the time for the payment thereof extended, without affecting such security.

48. Where any person engaged in the calling of cove keeper, keeper of a wharf, yard, harbor, or other place, warehouseman, miller, wharfinger, master of a vessel or carrier, curer and packer of pork, or dealer in wool, by whom a receipt or bill of lading may be given in such capacity, as hereinbefore mentioned, for cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize, is the same time the owner of or entitled himself (otherwise than in his capacity of warehouseman, miller, wharfinger, master of a vessel or carrier, cove keeper, keeper of a wharf, yard, harbor, or other place, curer and packer of pork, or dealer in wool) to receive such cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize, any such receipt or bill of lading or any acknowledgment or certificate intended to answer the purpose of such receipt or bill of lading, made by such person, shall be as valid and effectual for the purposes of this act as if the person making such receipt, acknowledgment, or certificate or bill of lading, and the owner or person entitled to receive such cereal grains, goods, wares, or merchandize were not one and the same

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person, and in the case of the curing and packing of pork a receipt for hogs shall apply to the pork made from such hogs.

49. All advances made on the security of any bill of lading, specification, receipt, acknowledgment, or certificate shall give and be held to give to the bank making such advances a claim for the repayment of such advances on the grain, goods, wares, or merchandise therein mentioned, prior to and by preference over the claim of any unpaid vendor, any law, usage, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

50. But no timber, boards, deals, staves, or other lumber shall be held in pledge by the bank for any period exceeding twelve calendar months, except by the consent in writing of the person pledging the same, and no sale of any timber, boards, deals, staves, or other lumber shall be made under this act until nor unless notice of the time and place of such sale shall have been given by letter mailed in the post office to the last known address of the pledger thereof at least thirty days prior to the sale thereof, and every such sale shall be made by public auction after notice thereof by advertisement, stating the time and place thereof, in at least two newspapers published in or nearest to the place where such sale is to be made, and in every issue of such newspapers during eight days, which newspapers shall be those whose issue is most frequent at or nearest the place where the sale is to be made, and if such place be in the Province of Quebec, then at least one of such newspapers shall be a newspaper published in the English language, and at least one other of such newspapers shall be a newspaper published in the French language; and no cereal grains or goods, wares or merchandise, other than timber, boards, deals, staves, and other lumber, shall be held in pledge by the bank for a period exceeding six months (except by consent of the person pledging the same), and no sale thereof shall be made by

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the bank under this act until or unless notice has been given by letter mailed in the post office to the last known address of the pledger thereof at least ten days prior to such sale.

51. The bank shall not make loans or grant discounts on the security of its own stock, but shall have a privileged lien for any overdue debt on the shares and unpaid dividends of the debtor thereof, and may decline to allow any transfer of the shares of such debtor until such debt is paid, and if such debt is not paid when due the bank may sell such shares, after notice has been given to the holder thereof of the intention of the bank to sell the same, by mailing such notice in the post office to the last known address of such holder at least thirty days prior to such sale; and upon such sale being made, the president, vice-president, manager, or cashier shall execute a transfer of such shares to the purchaser thereof in the usual transfer book of the bank, which transfer shall vest in such purchaser all the rights in or to such shares which were possessed by the holder thereof, with the same obligation of warranty on his part as if he were the vendor thereof, but without any warranty from the bank or by the officer of the bank executing such transfer.

And nothing in this act contained shall prevent the bank from acquiring and holding as collateral security for any advance by or debt to the bank, or for any credit or liability incurred by the bank to or on behalf of any person (and either at the time of such advance by or the contracting of such debt to the bank, or the opening of such credit, or the incurring of such liability by the bank), the shares of the capital stock of any other bank, the bonds or debentures of municipal or other corporations, or dominion, provincial, British, or foreign public securities; and such stock, bonds, debentures, or securities may, in case of default to pay the debt for securing which they were so

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acquired and held, be dealt with, sold, and conveyed in like manner and subject to the same restrictions as are herein provided in respect of stock of the bank on which it has acquired a lien under this act.

52. The bank shall not be liable to incur any penalty or forfeiture for usury; and may stipulate for, take, reserve, or exact any rate of interest or discount not exceeding seven per centum per annum, and may receive and take in advance any such rate, but no higher rate of interest shall be recoverable by the bank. Any rate of interest whatever may be allowed by the bank upon money deposited with it.

53. The bank may, in discounting at any of its places of business, branches, agencies, or offices of discount and deposit, any note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper payable at any other of its own places or seats of business, branches, agencies, or offices of discount and deposit in Canada, receive or retain in addition to the discount any amount not exceeding the following rates per centum, according to the time it has to run, on the amount of such note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper, to defray the expenses attending the collection thereof; that is to say, under thirty days, one-eighth of one per cent; thirty days or over, but under sixty days, one-fourth of one per cent; sixty days and over, but under ninety days, three-eighths of one per cent; ninety days and over, one-half of one per cent.

54. The bank may, in discounting any note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper, bona fide payable at any place in Canada different from that at which it is discounted, and other than one of its own places or seats of business, branches, agencies, or offices of discount and deposit in Canada, receive and retain in addition to the discount thereon, a sum not exceeding one-half of one per centum on the amount thereof, to defray the expenses of agency and charges in collecting the same.

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Bank notes, bonds, &c.

55. The bonds, obligations, and bills obligatory or of credit of the bank under its corporate seal and signed by the president or vice-president and countersigned by a cashier or assistant cashier, which shall be made payable to any person or persons, shall be assignable by endorsement thereon; and bills or notes of the bank signed by the president, vice-president, cashier, or other officer appointed by the directors of the bank to sign the same, promising the payment of money to any person or persons, his, her, or their order, or to the bearer, though not under the corporate seal of the bank, shall be binding and obligatory on it in like manner and with the like force and effect as they would be upon any private person, if issued by him in his private or natural capacity, and shall be assignable in like manner as if they were so issued by a private person in his natural capacity: *Provided always*, That nothing in this act shall be held to debar the directors of the bank from authorizing or deputing from time to time any cashier, assistant cashier, or officer of the bank, or any director other than the president or vice-president, or any cashier, manager, or local director of any branch or office of discount and deposit of the bank, to sign the bills of the bank intended for general circulation, and payable to order or to bearer on demand.

56. All bank notes and bills of the bank whereon the name or names of any person or persons entrusted or authorized to sign such notes or bills on behalf of the bank, shall or may become impressed by machinery provided for that purpose by or with the authority of the bank, shall be and shall be taken to be good and valid to all intents and purposes, as if such notes and bills had been subscribed in the proper handwriting of the person or persons entrusted or authorized by the bank to sign the same, respectively, and shall be and be deemed and taken to be

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bank notes and bills within the meaning of all laws and statutes whatever, and shall and may be described as bank bills or notes in all indictments and civil or criminal proceedings whatsoever, any law, statute, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

INSOLVENCY.

57. Any suspension by the bank of payment of any of its liabilities as they accrue, in specie or Dominion notes, shall, if it continues for ninety days, constitute the bank insolvent and operate a forfeiture of its charter, so far as regards the issue or reissue of notes and other banking operations; and the charter shall remain in force only for the purpose of enabling the directors or the assignee or assignees, or other legal authority (if any be appointed in such manner as may by law be provided) to make the calls mentioned in the next following section of this act and to wind up its business; and any such assignee or assignees or other legal authority shall, for such purposes, have all the powers of the directors.

58. In the event of the property and assets of the bank becoming insufficient to pay its debts and liabilities, the shareholders of the bank shall be liable for the deficiency so far as that each shareholder shall be so liable to an amount (over and above any amount not paid up on their respective shares) equal to the amount of their shares, respectively; and if any suspension of payment in full in specie or Dominion notes, of all or any of the notes or other liabilities of the bank shall continue for six months, the directors may and shall make calls on such shareholders, to the amount they may deem necessary to pay all the debts and liabilities of the bank, without waiting for the collection of any debts due to it or the sale of any of its assets or property; such calls shall be made at intervals of thirty days and upon notice to be given thirty days

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at least prior to the day on which such call shall be payable; and any such call shall not exceed twenty per cent on each share, and payment thereof may be enforced in like manner as for calls on unpaid stock, and the first of such calls shall be made within ten days after the expiration of the said six months; and any failure on the part of any shareholder liable to such call to pay the same when due, shall operate a forfeiture by such shareholder of all claim in or to any part of the assets of the bank, such call and any further call thereafter being nevertheless recoverable from him as if no such forfeiture had been incurred. *Provided always*, That nothing in this section contained shall be construed to alter or diminish the additional liabilities of the directors hereinbefore mentioned and declared: *Provided also*, That if the bank be en commandite and the principal partners are personally liable, then, in case of any such suspension such liability shall at once accrue and may be enforced against such principal partners, without waiting for any sale or discussion of the property or assets of the bank, or other preliminary proceedings whatever, and the provision respecting calls shall not apply to such bank.

59. Persons who, having been shareholders in the bank, have only transferred their shares or any of them to others or registered the transfer thereof within one month before the commencement of the suspension of payment by the bank, shall be liable to calls on such shares under the next preceding section, as if they had not transferred them, saving their recourse against those to whom they were transferred; and any assignee or other officer or person appointed to wind up the affairs of the bank, in case of its insolvency, shall have the powers of the directors with respect to such calls: *Provided*, That if the bank be en commandite, the liability of the principal partners and of the commanditaires shall continue for such time after their ceasing to be such as may be provided in the charter of

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the bank, and the foregoing provisions with respect to the transfer of shares or calls shall not apply to such bank.

OFFENCES AND PENALTIES.

60. If any cashier, assistant cashier, manager, clerk, or servant of the bank secretes, embezzles, or absconds with any bond, obligation, bill obligatory or of credit or other bill or note, or any security for money, or any money or effects entrusted to him as such cashier, assistant cashier, manager, clerk, or servant, whether the same belong to the said bank or belong to any person or persons, body or bodies, politic or corporate, or institution or institutions and be lodged with the said bank, the said cashier, assistant cashier, manager, clerk, or servant so offending and being thereof convicted in due form of law, shall be deemed guilty of felony, and shall be punished by imprisonment at hard labor in the penitentiary for any term not less than two years, or by imprisonment in any gaol or place of confinement for any term less than two years, in the discretion of the court.

61. If any president, vice-president, director, principal partner en commandite, manager, cashier, or other officer of the bank wilfully gives or concurs in giving any creditor of the bank any fraudulent, undue, or unfair preference over other creditors, by giving security to such creditor or by changing the nature of his claim or otherwise howsoever, he shall be guilty of misdemeanor, and shall further be responsible for all damages sustained by any party by such preference.

62. The making of any wilfully false or deceptive statement in any account, statement, return, report, or other document respecting the affairs of the bank, shall unless it amounts to a higher offence, be a misdemeanor, and any and every president, vice-president, director, principal partner en commandite, auditor, manager, cashier, or other officer of the bank preparing, signing, approving, or

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concurring in such statement, return, report, or document or using the same with intent to deceive or mislead any party, shall be held to have wilfully made such false statement, and shall further be responsible for all damages sustained by such party in consequence thereof.

63. Any director refusing to make or enforce, or to concur in making or enforcing any call under the fifty-eighth section of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be personally responsible for any damages suffered by such default.

64. If any miller, warehouseman, master of a vessel, forwarder, carrier, wharfinger, keeper of a cove, yard, harbor, or other place for storing timber, deals, staves, boards, or other lumber, curer or packer of pork, or dealer in wool, factor, agent, or other person, or any clerk or person in his employ, knowingly and wilfully gives to any person any writing purporting to be a receipt for, or an acknowledgment of any cereal grain, timber, deals, staves, boards, or other lumber, or other goods, wares, merchandize, or property, as having been received in his warehouse, vessel, cove, wharf, or other place, or in any such place about which he is employed, or as having been in any other manner received by him or the person in or about whose business he is employed, before the goods or property named in such receipt, acknowledgment, or writing have been actually so received by or delivered to him or his employer, with the intent to mislead, deceive, injure, or defraud any person or persons whomsoever, although such person or persons may be then to him unknown; or if any person knowingly and wilfully accepts or transmits or uses any such false receipt, acknowledgment, or writing, the person giving and the person accepting, transmitting, or using such false receipt, acknowledgment, or writing, shall severally be guilty of a misdemeanor.

65. The wilfully making any false statement in any such receipt, acknowledgment, or certificate as in the forty-

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sixth section of this act mentioned, or the wilfully alienating or parting with, or not delivering to the holder or indorsee any cereal grain, goods, wares, or merchandize mentioned in such receipt, acknowledgment, or certificate, contrary to the undertaking therein expressed or implied, shall be a misdemeanor.

66. If any offence in either of the two next preceding sections mentioned be committed by the doing of anything in the name of any firm, company, or copartnership of persons, the person by whom such thing is actually done, and any person who connives at the doing thereof, shall be deemed guilty of the offence, and not any other person.

67. Any person convicted of a misdemeanor under this act shall, on conviction, be liable to be imprisoned in any gaol or place of confinement for any term not exceeding two years, in the discretion of the court before which the conviction shall be had.

68. No private person or party, except a chartered bank, shall issue or re-issue, make, draw, or indorse, any bill, bond, note, check or other instrument, intended to circulate as money, or to be used as a substitute for money, for any amount whatever, under a penalty of four hundred dollars, to be recovered, with costs, in any court having civil jurisdiction to the amount, by any party who will sue for the same; and one half of such sum shall belong to the party suing for the same, and the other half to Her Majesty, for the public uses of the Dominion:

The intention to pass any such instrument as money shall be presumed, if it be made for the payment of a less sum than twenty dollars, and be payable either in form or in fact to the bearer thereof, or at sight or on demand, or at less than thirty days thereafter, or be overdue, or be in any way calculated or designed for circulation, or as a substitute for money; unless such instrument be a check on some chartered bank, paid by the maker directly to

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his immediate creditor, or a promissory note, bill of exchange, bond or other undertaking, for the payment of money paid or delivered by the maker thereof to his immediate creditor, and be not designed to circulate as a substitute for money:

Provided always, That the Halifax Banking Company may, until the end of the year 1874, continue to re-issue their notes now in circulation, but the whole of such notes shall, as far as practicable, be called in and withdrawn by the end of the said year.

NOTICES.

69. The several public notices by this act required to be given shall be given by advertisement in one or more of the newspapers published at the place where the head office of the bank is situate, and in the Canada Gazette or such other Gazette as shall be generally known and described as the Official Gazette for the publication of official documents and notices emanating from the civil government of this Dominion.

FUTURE LEGISLATION.

70. The bank shall be subject to such provisions of any general or special winding up act to be passed by Parliament as may be declared to apply to banks; and no special act which Parliament may deem it right to pass for winding up the affairs of the bank in case of its insolvency shall be deemed an infringement of its rights or of the privileges conferred by its charter.

71. The bank shall always be subject to any general provisions respecting banks which Parliament may deem necessary for the public interest.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS AS TO CERTAIN BANKS.

72. The Bank of British North America, which, by the terms of its present charter, is to be subject to the general

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laws of the Dominion, with respect to banks and banking, shall not issue or re-issue in Canada any note for a less sum than four dollars, and any such note of the said bank outstanding shall be called in and redeemed as soon as practicable; and the provisions contained in the ninth, twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, sixteenth, forty-fifth, forty-sixth, forty-seventh, forth-eighth, forty-ninth, fiftieth, fifty-first, fifty-second, fifty-third, fifty-fourth, sixtieth, sixty-first, sixty-second, sixty-fourth, sixty-fifth, sixty-sixth, sixty-seventh, sixty-ninth, and seventy-first sections of this act, shall apply to the said bank; those contained in the other sections shall not apply to it.

73. This act shall not apply to any now existing bank not mentioned in the schedule thereunto annexed (except the Bank of British North America to the extent aforesaid and La Banque du Peuple to the extent hereinafter mentioned) unless the directors of such bank shall, by special resolution, apply to the treasury board, that the provisions of this act may be extended to such bank, nor unless the treasury board allows such application, and upon publication in the Official Gazette of such resolution, and of the minute of the treasury board thereon, allowing such application, such bank shall come under the provisions of this act.

74. In pursuance of the application made by the Bank of Nova Scotia in that behalf, it shall be lawful for the shareholders of the said bank, at any special general meeting called for the purpose, and by a by-law to be passed thereat, to reduce the capital and shares of the said bank by an amount not exceeding thirteen per cent thereof respectively, and the shares and capital shall thereafter be reckoned at the amount to which they shall be so reduced.

75. Sections four, thirty-nine to fifty-four, both inclusive, sixty, sixty-one and sixty-two, and sixty-four to sixty-eight, both inclusive, shall apply to La Banque du

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Peuple from and after the passing of this act and all the other provisions of this act (except those contained in sections one, two, three, five, six, seven, twenty-seven, twenty-nine, thirty, thirty-one, thirty-two, thirty-three, thirty-five, thirty-six, thirty-seven, fifty-seven, fifty-eight, fifty-nine, sixty-three, seventy, seventy-two, seventy-three, and seventy-four, and so much of section twenty-eight as is declared not to apply to banks en commandite) shall apply from and after the first day of July next to La Banque du Peuple, provided that wherever the word "directors" is used in any of the sections which apply to the said bank it shall be read and construed as meaning the principal partners or members of the corporation of the said bank; and so much of the act incorporating the said bank or of any act amending or continuing it as may be inconsistent with any section of this act applying to the said bank or which makes any provision in any matter provided for by the said sections other than such as is hereby made, is hereby repealed.

REPEALING AND SAVING CLAUSES.

76. The act passed in the thirty-third year of Her Majesty's reign, chaptered eleven, and intituled "An act respecting banks and banking," is hereby repealed; and the act passed in the thirty-first year of Her Majesty's reign, and intituled "An act respecting banks," is hereby repealed in so far as respects banks to which this act applies, including the Bank of British North America and La Banque du Peuple, and shall cease to apply to them after the passing of this act (or after they respectively come under its provisions, if they are now existing banks and not mentioned in the schedule), except as to rights theretofore acquired under or offences committed against it, but shall remain in force as regards other banks until the end of the session of Parliament commencing next

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after the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two.

77. Nothing in this act contained shall affect any case pending when it shall come into force, but such case shall be decided as if this act had not been passed.

SCHEDULE.

Banks whose charters are continued by this act.

The Bank of Montreal.
The Quebec Bank.
The City Bank.
The Niagara District Bank.
Molson's Bank.
The Bank of Toronto.
The Ontario Bank.
The Eastern Townships Bank.
La Banque Nationale.
La Banque Jacques Cartier.
The Merchants' Bank of Canada.
The Royal Canadian Bank.
The Union Bank of Lower Canada.
The Canadian Bank of Commerce.
The Mechanics' Bank.
The Dominion Bank.
The Merchants' Bank of Halifax.
The Bank of Nova Scotia.
The Bank of Yarmouth.

APPENDIX II.

THE CONSOLIDATED CANADIAN BANK ACT.

REVISED STATUTES OF CANADA, 1906.

CHAP. 29.—An Act Respecting banks and banking.

SHORT TITLE.

1. This act may be cited as the bank act. (53 V, c. 31, s. 1.)

INTERPRETATION.

2. In this act, unless the context otherwise requires, (a) "bank" means any bank to which this act applies; (b) "minister" means the minister of finance and receiver general; (c) "association" means the Canadian Bankers' Association, incorporated by the act passed in the session held in the sixty-third and sixty-fourth years of Her late Majesty's reign, chapter ninety-three, intituled "An act to incorporate the Canadian Bankers' Association;" (d) "curator" means any person appointed under the authority of this act by the Canadian Bankers' Association to supervise the affairs of any bank which has suspended payment in specie or Dominion notes of any of its liabilities as they accrue; (e) "circulation fund" means the fund heretofore established and continued by the authority of this act under the name of the "bank circulation redemption fund;" (f) "goods, wares, and merchandise" includes, in addition to the things usually understood thereby, timber, deals, boards, staves, saw logs, and other lumber, petroleum, crude oil, and all agricultural produce and other articles of commerce; (g) "warehouse receipt" (i) means any receipt given by any person for any goods, wares, or merchandise in his actual visible and continued possession

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as bailee thereof in good faith and not as of his own property, and (ii) includes receipts, given by any person who is the owner or keeper of a harbour, cove, pond, wharf, yard, warehouse, shed, storehouse, or other place for the storage of goods, wares, or merchandise, for goods, wares, and merchandise delivered to him as bailee, and actually in the place or in one or more of the places owned or kept by him, whether such person is engaged in other business or not, and (iii) includes also receipts given by any person in charge of logs or timber in transit from timber limits or other lands to the place of destination of such logs or timber; (h) "bill of lading" includes all receipts for goods, wares, or merchandise, accompanied by an undertaking to transport the same from the place where they were received to some other place, by any mode of carriage whatever, whether by land or water, or partly by land and partly by water; (i) "manufacturer" includes manufacturers of logs, timber or lumber, maltsters, distillers, brewers, refiners and producers of petroleum, tanners, curers, packers, canners of meat, pork, fish, fruit, or vegetables, and any person who produces by hand, art, process, or mechanical means any goods, wares, or merchandise; (j) "president" does not include an honorary president.

2. Where by this act any public notice is required to be given the notice shall, unless otherwise specified, be given by advertisement (a) in one or more newspapers published at the place where the head office of the bank is situate and (b) in the Canada Gazette. (53 V, c. 31, ss. 2, 54, and 102; 63-64 V, c. 26, ss. 3 and 24; 4-5 E. VII, c. 4, s. 4.)

APPLICATION.

General.

3. The provisions of this act apply to the several banks enumerated in Schedule A to this act, and to every bank incorporated after the first day of January, one thousand

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nine hundred and five, whether this act is specially mentioned in its act of incorporation or not, but not to any other bank, except as hereinafter specially provided. (53 V, c. 31, s. 3.)

4. The charters or acts of incorporation, and any acts in amendment thereof, of the several banks enumerated in Schedule A to this act are continued in force until the first day of July, one thousand nine hundred and eleven, so far as regards, as to each of such banks, (a) the incorporation and corporate name; (b) the amount of the authorized capital stock; (c) the amount of each share of such stock; and (d) the chief place of business; subject to the right of each of such banks to increase or reduce its authorized capital stock in the manner hereinafter provided.

2. As to all other particulars this act shall form and be the charter of each of the said banks until the first day of July, one thousand nine hundred and eleven.

3. Nothing in this section shall be deemed to continue in force any charter or act of incorporation, if, or in so far as it is, under the terms thereof, or under the terms of this act or of any other act passed or to be passed, forfeited or rendered void by reason of the nonperformance of the conditions of such charter or act of incorporation, or by reason of insolvency, or for any other reason. (63-64 V, c. 26, s. 6.)

Banks in course of winding up.

5. The provisions of this act shall continue to apply to the banks named in Schedule A to the bank act, passed in the fifty-third year of Her late Majesty's reign, chapter thirty-one, and not named in Schedule A to this act, but only in so far as may be necessary to wind up the business of the said banks respectively; and the charters or acts of incorporation of the said banks, and any acts in amendment thereof, or any acts in relation to the said banks now

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in force, shall respectively continue in force for the purposes of winding up, and for such purposes only.

2. The sections of this act enumerated in the next following section shall continue to apply to the Bank of British Columbia, but only in so far as may be necessary to wind up the business of the bank. (63-64 V, c. 26, s. 5.)

The Bank of British North America.

6. The sections of this act which apply to the Bank of British North America are sections one, two, six, seven, thirty-nine, forty-five, fifty-seven to sixty-one, both inclusive, sixty-three to one hundred and twenty-four, both inclusive, one hundred and thirty, one hundred and thirty-two to one hundred and fifty-two, both inclusive, and one hundred and fifty-four to one hundred and fifty-seven, both inclusive.

2. The other sections of this act do not apply to the Bank of British North America. (53 V, c. 31, s. 6; 63-64 V, c. 26, s. 7.)

7. For the purposes of the several sections of this act made applicable to the Bank of British North America the chief office of the Bank of British North America shall be the office of the bank at Montreal in the Province of Quebec. (53 V, c. 31, s. 7.)

INCORPORATION AND ORGANIZATION OF BANKS.

8. The capital stock of every bank hereafter incorporated, the name of the bank, the place where its chief office is to be situated, and the name of the provisional directors, shall be declared in the act of incorporation of every such bank respectively. (53 V, c. 31, s. 9.)

9. An act of incorporation of a bank in the form set forth in Schedule B to this act shall be construed to confer upon the bank thereby incorporated all the powers, privileges, and immunities, and to subject it to all the

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liabilities and provisions set forth in this act. (53 V, c. 31, s. 9.)

10. The capital stock of any bank hereafter incorporated shall be not less than five hundred thousand dollars, and shall be divided into shares of one hundred dollars each. (53 V, c. 31, s. 10.)

11. The number of provisional directors shall be not less than five.

2. The provisional directors shall hold office until directors are elected by the subscribers to the stock, as herein after provided. (53 V, c. 31, s. 11; 4-5 E. VII, c. 4, s. 1.)

12. For the purpose of organizing the bank, the provisional directors may, after giving public notice thereof, cause stock books to be opened, in which shall be recorded the subscriptions of such persons as desire to become shareholders in the bank.

2. Such books shall be opened at the place where the chief office of the bank is to be situate, and elsewhere, in the discretion of the provisional directors.

3. Such stock books may be kept open for such time as the provisional directors deem necessary. (53 V, c. 31, s. 12.)

13. So soon as a sum not less than five hundred thousand dollars of the capital stock of the bank has been bona fide subscribed, and a sum not less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars thereof has been paid to the minister, the provisional directors may, by public notice, published for at least four weeks, call a meeting of the subscribers to the said stock, to be held in the place named in the act of incorporation as the chief place of business of the bank, at such time and at such place therein as set forth in the said notice.

2. The subscribers shall at such meeting (a) determine the day upon which the annual general meeting of the bank is to be held and (b) elect such number of directors,

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duly qualified under this act, not less than five, as they think necessary.

3. Such directors shall hold office until the annual general meeting in the year next succeeding their election.

4. Upon the election of directors as aforesaid the functions of the provisional directors shall cease. (53 V., c. 31, s. 13; 4-5 E. VII., c. 4, s. 2.)

14. The bank shall not issue notes or commence the business of banking until it has obtained from the treasury board a certificate permitting it to do so.

2. No application for such certificate shall be made until directors have been elected by the subscribers to the stock in the manner hereinbefore provided. (53 V., c. 31, s. 14.)

15. No certificate shall be given by the treasury board until it has been shown to the satisfaction of the board, by affidavit or otherwise, that all the requirements of this act and of the special act of incorporation of the bank, as to the payment required to be made to the minister, the election of directors, deposit for security for note issue, or other preliminaries, have been complied with, and that the sum so paid is then held by the minister.

2. No such certificate shall be given except within one year from the passing of the act of incorporation of the bank applying for the said certificate. (53 V., c. 31, s. 15.)

16. If the bank does not obtain a certificate from the treasury board within one year from the time of the passing of its act of incorporation, all the rights, powers, and privileges conferred on the bank by its act of incorporation shall thereupon cease and determine, and be of no force or effect whatever. (53 V., c. 31, s. 16.)

17. Upon the issue of the certificate in manner hereinbefore provided, the minister shall forthwith pay to the bank the amount of money so deposited with him as aforesaid, without interest, after deducting therefrom

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the sum of five thousand dollars required to be deposited under the provisions of this act for the securing of the notes issued by the bank.

2. In case no certificate is issued by the treasury board within the time limited for the issue thereof, the amount so deposited shall be returned to the person depositing the same.

3. In no case shall the minister be under any obligation to see to the proper application in any way of the amount so returned. (53 V., c. 31, s. 17.)

INTERNAL REGULATIONS.

18. The shareholders of the bank may regulate, by by-law, the following matters incident to the management and administration of the affairs of the bank, that is to say: (a) The day upon which the annual general meeting of the shareholders for the election of directors shall be held; (b) the record to be kept of proxies, and the time, not exceeding thirty days, within which proxies must be produced and recorded prior to a meeting in order to entitle the holder to vote thereon; (c) the number of the directors, which shall be not less than five, and the quorum thereof, which shall be not less than three; (d) subject to the provisions hereinafter contained, the qualifications of directors; (e) the method of filling vacancies in the board of directors, whenever the same occur during each year; (f) the time and proceedings for the election of directors, in case of a failure of any election on the day appointed for it; (g) the remuneration of the president, vice-president and other directors; and (h) the amount of discounts or loans which may be made to directors, either jointly or severally, or to any one firm or person, or to any shareholder, or to corporations.

2. The shareholders may authorize the directors to establish guarantee and pension funds for the officers

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and employees of the bank and their families, and to contribute thereto out of the funds of the bank.

3. Until it is otherwise prescribed by by-law under this section, the by-laws of the bank on any matter which may be regulated by by-law under this section shall remain in force, except as to any provision fixing the qualification of directors at an amount less than that prescribed by this act. (53 V., c. 31, s. 18; 4-5 E. VII., c. 4, s. 3.)

19. The stock, property, affairs, and concerns of the bank shall be managed by a board of directors, who shall be elected annually in manner hereinafter provided, and shall be eligible for reelection. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

20. Each director shall (a) when the paid-up capital stock of the bank is one million dollars or less, hold stock of the bank on which not less than three thousand dollars have been paid up; (b) when the paid-up capital stock of the bank is over one million dollars and does not exceed three million dollars, hold stock of the bank on which not less than four thousand dollars have been paid up; and (c) when the paid-up capital stock of the bank exceeds three million dollars, hold stock of the bank on which not less than five thousand dollars have been paid up.

2. No person shall be elected or continue to be a director unless he holds stock paid up to the amount required by this act, or such greater amount as is required by any by-law in that behalf.

3. A majority of the directors shall be natural born or naturalized subjects of His Majesty. (53 V., c. 31, ss. 18 and 19.)

21. The directors shall be elected by the shareholders on such day in each year as is appointed by the charter or by any by-law of the bank and at such time of the day as the directors appoint.

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2. The election shall take place at the head office of the bank.

3. Public notice of the election shall be given by the directors by publishing such notice, for at least four weeks previously to the time of holding the election, in a newspaper published at the place where the head office of the bank is situate. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

22. The persons, to the number authorized to be elected, who have the greatest number of votes at any election shall be directors. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

23. If it happens at any election that two or more persons have an equal number of votes, and the election or nonelection of one or more of such persons as a director or directors depends on such equality, then the directors who have a greater number of votes, or the majority of them, shall, in order to complete the full number of directors, determine which of the said persons so having an equal number of votes shall be a director or directors. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

24. The directors, as soon as may be after their election, shall proceed to elect, by ballot, two of their number to be president and vice-president, respectively.

2. The directors may also elect by ballot one of their number to be honorary president. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19; 4-5 E. VII., c. 4, s. 4.)

25. If a vacancy occurs in the board of directors the vacancy shall be filled in the manner provided by the by-laws: *Provided*, That if the vacancy is not filled the acts of a quorum of the remaining directors shall not be thereby invalidated. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

26. If a vacancy occurs in the office of the president or vice-president, the directors shall, from among themselves, elect a president or vice-president, who shall continue in office for the remainder of the year. (53 V., c. 31, s. 19.)

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27. If an election of directors is not made on the day appointed for that purpose, such election may take place on any other day, according to the by-laws made by the shareholders in that behalf.

2. The directors in office on the day appointed for the election of directors shall remain in office until a new election is made. (53 V., c. 31, s. 20.)

28. The president, or in his absence the vice-president, shall preside at all meetings of the directors.

2. If at any meeting of the directors both president and vice-president are absent, one of the directors present, chosen to act *pro tempore*, shall preside.

3. The president, vice-president, or president *pro tempore* so presiding shall vote as a director, and shall, if there is an equal division on any question, also have a casting vote. (53 V., c. 31, s. 21.)

29. The directors may make by-laws and regulations not repugnant to the provisions of this act or to the laws of Canada with respect to (a) the management and disposition of the stock, property, affairs, and concerns of the bank; (b) the duties and conduct of the officers, clerks, and servants employed therein; and (c) all such other matters as appertain to the business of a bank.

2. All by-laws of the bank heretofore lawfully made and now in force with regard to any matter respecting which the directors may make by-laws under this section, including any by-laws for the establishing of guarantee and pension funds for the employees of the bank, shall remain in force until they are repealed or altered by other by-laws made under this act. (53 V., c. 31, s. 22.)

30. The directors may appoint as many officers, clerks, and servants as they consider necessary for the carrying on of the business of the bank.

2. The directors may also appoint a director or directors for any branch of the bank.

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3. Such officers, clerks, and servants may be paid such salaries and allowances as the directors consider necessary.

4. The directors shall, before permitting any cashier, officer, clerk, or servant of the bank to enter upon the duties of his office, require him to give a bond, guarantee, or other security to the satisfaction of the directors for the due and faithful performance of his duties. (53 V., c. 31, s. 23.)

31. A special general meeting of the shareholders of the bank may be called at any time by (a) the directors of the bank or any four of them; or (b) any number not less than twenty-five of the shareholders, acting by themselves or by their proxies, who are together proprietors of at least one-tenth of the paid-up capital stock of the bank.

2. Such directors or shareholders shall give six weeks' previous public notice, specifying therein the object of such meeting.

3. Such meeting shall be held at the usual place of meeting of the shareholders.

4. If the object of the special general meeting is to consider the proposed removal, for maladministration or other specified and apparently just cause, of the president or vice-president, or of a director of the bank, and if a majority of the votes of the shareholders at the meeting is given for such removal, a director to replace him shall be elected or appointed in the manner provided by the by-laws of the bank, or, if there are no by-laws providing therefor, by the shareholders at the meeting.

5. If it is the president or vice-president who is removed, his office shall be filled by the directors in the manner provided in case of a vacancy occurring in the office of president or vice-president. (53 V., c. 31, s. 24.)

32. Every shareholder shall, on all occasions on which the votes of the shareholders are taken, have one vote for each share held by him for at least thirty days before the time of meeting.

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2. In all cases when the votes of the shareholders are taken, the voting shall be by ballot.

3. All questions proposed for the consideration of the shareholders shall be determined by a majority of the votes of the shareholders present in person or represented by proxy.

4. The chairman elected to preside at any meeting of the shareholders shall vote as a shareholder only, unless there is a tie, in which case he shall, except as to the election of a director, have a casting vote.

5. If two or more persons are joint holders of shares, any one of the joint holders may be empowered, by letter of attorney from the other joint holder or holders, or a majority of them, to represent the said shares, and to vote accordingly.

6. Shareholders may vote by proxy, but no person other than a shareholder eligible to vote shall be permitted to vote or act as proxy.

7. No manager, cashier, clerk or other subordinate officer of the bank shall vote either in person or by proxy, or hold a proxy for the purpose of voting.

8. No appointment of a proxy to vote at any meeting of the shareholders of the bank shall be valid for that purpose, unless it has been made or renewed in writing within the two years last preceding the time of such meeting.

9. No shareholder shall vote, either in person or by proxy, on any question proposed for the consideration of the shareholders of the bank at any meeting of the shareholders, or in any case in which the votes of the shareholders of the bank are taken, unless he has paid all calls made by the directors which are then due and payable.
(53 V., c. 31, s. 25.)

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CAPITAL STOCK.

33. The capital stock of the bank may be increased, from time to time, by such percentage, or by such amount, as is determined upon by by-law passed by the shareholders, at the annual general meeting, or at any special general meeting called for the purpose.

2. No such by-law shall come into operation, or be of any force or effect, unless and until a certificate approving thereof has been issued by the treasury board.

3. No such certificate shall be issued by the treasury board unless application therefor is made within three months from the time of the passing of the by-law, nor unless it appears to the satisfaction of the treasury board that a copy of the by-law, together with notice of intention to apply for the certificate, has been published for at least four weeks in the Canada Gazette and in one or more newspapers published in the place where the chief office or place of business of the bank is situate.

4. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the treasury board from refusing to issue such certificate if it thinks best so to do. (53 V., c. 31, s. 26.)

34. Any of the original unsubscribed capital stock, or of the increased stock of the bank, shall, when the directors so determine, be allotted to the then shareholders of the bank *pro rata*, and at such rate as is fixed by the directors: *Provided*, That (a) no fraction of a share shall be so allotted, and (b) in no case shall a rate be fixed by the directors, which will make the premium, if any, paid or payable on the stock so allotted, exceed the percentage which the reserve fund of the bank then bears to the paid-up capital stock thereof.

2. Any of such allotted stock which is not taken up by the shareholder, to whom the allotment has been made within six months from the time when notice of the allotment was mailed to his address, or which he declines to

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accept, may be offered for subscription to the public, in such manner and on such terms as the directors prescribe. (53 V., c. 31, s. 27.)

35. The capital stock of the bank may be reduced by by-law passed by the shareholders at the annual general meeting, or at a special general meeting called for the purpose.

2. No such by-law shall come into operation or be of force or effect until a certificate approving thereof has been issued by the treasury board.

3. No such certificate shall be issued by the treasury board unless application therefor is made within three months from the time of the passing of the by-law, nor unless it appears to the satisfaction of the board that (a) the shareholders voting for the by-law represent a majority in value of all the shares then issued by the bank; and (b) a copy of the by-law, together with notice of intention to apply to the treasury board for the issue of a certificate approving thereof, has been published for at least four weeks in the *Canada Gazette* and in one or more newspapers published in the place where the chief office or place of business of the bank is situate.

4. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the treasury board from refusing to issue the certificate if it thinks best so to do.

5. In addition to evidence of the passing of the by-law, and of the publication thereof in the manner in this section provided, statements showing (a) the amount of stock issued, (b) the number of shareholders represented at the meeting at which the by-law passed, (c) the amount of stock held by each such shareholder, (d) the number of shareholders who voted for the by-law, (e) the amount of stock held by each of such last-mentioned shareholders, (f) the assets and liabilities of the bank in full, and (g) the reasons and causes why the reduction is sought shall be

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laid before the treasury board at the time of the application for the issue of a certificate approving the by-law.

6. The passing of the by-law, and any reduction of the capital stock of the bank thereunder shall not in any way diminish or interfere with the liability of the shareholders of the bank to the creditors thereof at the time of the issue of the certificate approving the by-law.

7. If in any case legislation is sought to sanction any reduction of the capital stock of any bank, a copy of the by-law or resolution passed by the shareholders in regard thereto, together with statements similar to those by this section required to be laid before the treasury board, shall, at least one month prior to the introduction into Parliament of the bill relating to such reduction, be filed with the minister.

8. The capital shall not be reduced below the amount of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars of paid-up stock. (53 V., c. 31, s. 28.)

SHARES AND CALLS.

36. The shares of the capital stock of the bank shall be personal property.

2. Books of subscription may be opened at the chief place of business of the bank, or at such of its branches, or at such place or places in the United Kingdom or in any of the British colonies or possessions as the directors prescribe.

3. The shares shall be assignable and transferable at any of the places aforesaid, according to such forms and subject to such rules and regulations as the directors prescribe.

4. The dividends accruing upon any shares of the capital stock of the bank may be made payable at any of the places aforesaid.

5. The directors may appoint such agents in the United Kingdom, or in any of the British colonies or possessions,

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for the purposes of this section as they deem necessary. (53 V., c. 31, s. 29.)

37. The shares of the capital stock shall be paid in by such installments and at such times and places as the directors appoint.

2. The directors may cancel any subscription for any share unless a sum equal to ten per centum at least on the amount subscribed for is actually paid at or within thirty days after the time of subscribing.

3. Such cancellation shall not, in the event of insolvency, relieve the subscriber as hereinafter provided from his liability to creditors. (53 V., c. 31, s. 30.)

38. The directors may make such calls of money from the several shareholders for the time being upon the shares subscribed for by them, respectively, as they find necessary.

2. Such calls shall be made at intervals of not less than thirty days.

3. Notice of any such call shall be given at least thirty days prior to the day on which the call is payable.

4. No such call shall exceed ten per centum of each share subscribed. (53 V., c. 31, s. 31.)

39. If any part of the paid-up capital is lost the directors shall, if all the subscribed stock is not paid up, forthwith make calls upon the shareholders to an amount equivalent to the loss: *Provided*, That all net profits shall be applied to make good such loss.

2. Any such loss of capital and the calls, if any made in respect thereof, shall be mentioned in the next return made by the bank to the minister. (53 V., c. 31, s. 48.)

40. In case of the nonpayment of any call, the directors may, in the corporate name of the bank, sue for, recover, collect, and get in any such call, or may cause and declare the shares in respect of which any such call is made to be forfeited to the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 32.)

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41. If any shareholder refuses or neglects to pay any installment upon his shares of the capital stock at the time appointed therefor, such shareholder shall incur a penalty, to the use of the bank, of a sum of money equal to ten per centum of the amount of such shares

2. If the directors declare any shares to be forfeited to the bank they shall, within six months thereafter, without any previous formality, other than thirty days' public notice of their intention so to do, sell at public auction the said shares, or so many of the said shares as shall, after deducting the reasonable expenses of the sale, yield a sum of money sufficient to pay the unpaid instalments due on the remainder of the said shares, and the amount of penalties incurred upon the whole.

3. The president or vice-president, manager, or cashier of the bank shall execute the transfer to the purchaser of the shares so sold; and such transfer shall be as valid and effectual in law as if it had been executed by the original holder of the shares thereby transferred.

4. The directors, or the shareholders, at a general meeting, may, notwithstanding anything in this section contained, remit, either in whole or in part, and conditionally or unconditionally, any forfeiture or penalty incurred by the nonpayment of instalments as aforesaid. (53 V., c. 31, s. 33.)

42. In any action brought to recover any money due on any call it shall not be necessary to set forth the special matter in the declaration or statement of claim, but it shall be sufficient to allege that the defendant is the holder of one share or more, as the case may be, in the capital stock of the bank, and that he is indebted to the bank for a call or calls upon such share or shares, in the sum to which the call or calls amount, as the case may be, stating the amount and number of the calls.

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2. It shall not be necessary, in any such action, to prove the appointment of the directors. (53 V., c. 31, s. 34.)

TRANSFER AND TRANSMISSION OF SHARES.

43. No assignment or transfer of the shares of the capital stock of the bank shall be valid unless (a) made, registered, and accepted by the person to whom the transfer is made in a book or books kept for that purpose; and, (b) the person making the assignment or transfer has, if required by the bank, previously discharged all his debts or liabilities to the bank which exceed in amount the remaining stock, if any, belonging to such person, valued at the then current rate.

2. No fractional part of a share, or less than a whole share, shall be assignable or transferable. (53 V., c. 31, s. 35.)

44. A list of all transfers of shares registered each day in the books of the bank, showing, in each case, the parties to such transfers and the number of shares transferred, shall be made up at the end of each day.

2. Such lists shall be kept at the chief place of business of the bank, for the inspection of its shareholders. (53 V., c. 31, s. 36.)

45. All sales or transfers of shares, and all contracts and agreements in respect thereof, hereafter made or purporting to be made, shall be null and void, unless the person making the sale or transfer, or the person in whose name or behalf the sale or transfer is made, at the time of the sale or transfer (a) is the registered owner in the books of the bank of the share or shares so sold or transferred, or intended or purporting to be so sold or transferred; or, (b) has the registered owner's assent to the sale.

2. The distinguishing number or numbers, if any, of such share or shares shall be designated in the contract of agreement of sale or transfer.

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3. Notwithstanding anything in this section contained, the rights and remedies under any contract of sale, which does not comply with the conditions and requirements in this section mentioned, of any purchaser who has no knowledge of such non-compliance, are hereby saved. (53 V., c. 31, s. 37.)

46. When any share of the capital stock has been sold under a writ of execution, the officer by whom the writ was executed shall, within thirty days after the sale, leave with the bank an attested copy of the writ, with the certificate of such officer endorsed thereon, certifying to whom the sale has been made.

2. The president, vice-president, manager, or cashier of the bank shall execute the transfer of the share so sold to the purchaser, but not until after all debts and liabilities to the bank of the holder of the share, and all liens in favour of the bank existing thereon, have been discharged as by this act provided.

3. Such transfer shall be to all intents and purposes as valid and effectual in law as if it had been executed by the holder of the said share. (53 V., c. 31, s. 38.)

47. If the interest in any share in the capital stock of any bank is transmitted by or in consequence of (a) the death, bankruptcy, or insolvency of any shareholder; or, (b) the marriage of a female shareholder; or, (c) any lawful means, other than a transfer according to the provisions of this act; the transmission shall be authenticated by a declaration in writing, as hereinafter mentioned, or in such other manner as the directors of the bank require.

2. Every such declaration shall distinctly state the manner in which and the person to whom the share has been transmitted, and shall be made and signed by such person.

3. The person making and signing the declaration shall acknowledge the same before a judge of a court of record, or before the mayor, provost or chief magistrate of a city,

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town, borough, or other place, or before a notary public, where the same is made and signed.

4. Every declaration so signed and acknowledged shall be left with the cashier, manager, or other officer or agent of the bank, who shall thereupon enter the name of the person entitled under the transmission in the register of shareholders.

5. Until the transmission has been so authenticated, no person claiming by virtue thereof shall be entitled to participate in the profits of the bank, or to vote in respect of any such share of the capital stock. (53 V., c. 31, s. 39.)

48. If the transmission of any share of the capital stock has taken place by virtue of the marriage of a female shareholder, the declaration shall be accompanied by a copy of the register of such marriage, or other particulars of the celebration thereof, and shall declare the identity of the wife with the holder of such share, and shall be made and signed by such female shareholder and her husband.

2. The declaration may include a statement to the effect that the share transmitted is the separate property and under the sole control of the wife, and that she may, without requiring the consent or authority of her husband, receive and grant receipts for the dividends and profits accruing in respect thereof, and dispose of and transfer the share itself.

3. The declaration shall be binding upon the bank and persons making the same, until the said persons see fit to revoke it by a written notice to the bank to that effect.

4. The omission of a statement in any such declaration that the wife making the declaration is duly authorized by her husband to make the same shall not invalidate the declaration. (53 V., c. 31, s. 40.)

49. Every such declaration and instrument as are by the last two preceding sections required to perfect the transmission of a share in the bank shall, if made in any

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country other than Canada, the United Kingdom, or a British colony (*a*) be further authenticated by the clerk of a court of record under the seal of the court, or by the British consul or vice-consul, or other accredited representative of His Majesty's Government in the country where the declaration or instrument is made; or (*b*) be made directly before such British consul, vice-consul, or other accredited representative.

2. The directors, cashier, or other officer or agent of the bank may require corroborative evidence of any fact alleged in any such declaration. (53 V., c. 31, s. 39.)

50. If the transmission has taken place by virtue of any testamentary instrument, or by intestacy, the probate of the will, or the letters of administration, or act of curatorship or tutorship, or an official extract therefrom, shall, together with the declaration, be produced and left with the cashier or other officer or agent of the bank.

2. The cashier or other officer or agent shall thereupon enter in the register of shareholders the name of the person entitled under the transmission. (53 V., c. 31, s. 41.)

51. If the transmission of any share of the capital stock has taken place by virtue of the decease of any shareholder, the production to the directors and the deposit with them of (*a*) any authenticated copy of the probate of the will of the deceased shareholder, or of letters of administration of his estate, or of letters of verification of heirship, or of the act of curatorship or tutorship, granted by any court in Canada having power to grant the same, or by any court or authority in England, Wales, Ireland, or any British colony, or of any testament, testamentary or testament dative expedé in Scotland; or (*b*) an authentic notarial copy of the will of the deceased shareholder, if such will is in notarial form according to the law of the province of Quebec; or (*c*) if the deceased shareholder died out of His Majesty's dominions, any authenticated copy of the probate of his will or letters of administration

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of his property, or other document of like import, granted by any court or authority having the requisite power in such matters; shall be sufficient justification and authority to the directors for paying any dividend, or for transferring or authorizing the transfer of any share, in pursuance of and in conformity to the probate, letters of administration, or other such document as aforesaid. (53 V., c. 31, s. 42.)

SHARES SUBJECT TO TRUSTS.

52. The bank shall not be bound to see to the execution of any trust, whether expressed, implied, or constructive, to which any share of its stock is subject.

2. The receipt of the person in whose name any such share stands in the books of the bank, or, if it stands in the names of more persons than one, the receipt of one of such persons, shall be a sufficient discharge to the bank for any dividend or any other sum of money payable in respect of such share, unless, previously to such payment, express notice to the contrary has been given to the bank.

3. The bank shall not be bound to see to the application of the money paid upon such receipt, whether given by one of such persons or all of them. (53 V., c. 31, s. 43.)

53. No person holding stock in the bank as executor, administrator, guardian, trustee, tutor, or curator of or for any estate, trust, or person named in the books of the bank as being so represented by him, shall be personally subject to any liability as a shareholder; but the estate and funds in his hands shall be liable in like manner and to the same extent as the testator, intestate, ward, or person interested in such estate and funds would be, if living and competent to hold the stock in his own name.

2. If the trust is for a living person, such person shall also himself be liable as a shareholder.

3. If the estate, trust, or person so represented is not so named in the books of the bank, the executor, administra-

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tor, guardian, trustee, tutor, or curator shall be personally liable in respect of the stock as if he held it in his own name as owner thereof. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 8.)

ANNUAL STATEMENT AND INSPECTION.

54. At every annual meeting of the shareholders for the election of directors, the outgoing directors shall submit a clear and full statement of the affairs of the bank, exhibiting, on the one hand, the liabilities of or the debts due by the bank, and, on the other hand, the assets and resources thereof.

2. The statement shall show, on the one part, (a) the amount of the capital stock paid in; (b) the amount of the notes of the bank in circulation; (c) the net profits made; (d) the balances due to other banks; and (e) the cash deposited in the bank, distinguishing deposits bearing interest from those not bearing interest.

3. The statement shall show, on the other part, (a) the amount of the current coin, the gold and silver bullion, and the dominion notes held by the bank; (b) the balances due to the bank from other banks; (c) the value of the real and other property of the bank; and (d) the amount of debts owing to the bank, including and particularizing the amounts so owing upon bills of exchange, discounted notes, mortgages, and other securities.

4. The statement shall also exhibit (a) the rate and amount of the last dividend declared by the directors; (b) the amount of reserved profits at the date of such statement; and (c) the amount of debts due to the bank, overdue and not paid, with an estimate of the loss which will probably accrue thereon. (53 V., c. 31, s. 45.)

55. The directors shall also submit to the shareholders such further statements of the affairs of the bank other than statements with reference to the account of any person dealing with the bank as the shareholders require by

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by-law passed at the annual general meeting or at any special general meeting of the shareholders called for the purpose.

2. The statements so required shall be submitted at the annual general meeting, or at any special general meeting called for the purpose, or at such time and in such manner as is set forth in the by-law of the shareholders requiring such statements. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 9.)

56. The books, correspondence, and funds of the bank shall, at all times, be subject to the inspection of the directors.

2. No person who is not a director shall be allowed to inspect the account of any person dealing with the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 46.)

DIVIDENDS.

57. The directors of the bank shall, subject to the provisions of this act, declare quarterly or half-yearly dividends of so much of the profits of the bank as to the majority of them seems advisable.

2. The directors shall give at least thirty days' public notice of the payment of such dividends previously to the date fixed for such payment.

3. The directors may close the transfer books during a certain time, not exceeding fifteen days, before the payment of each dividend. (53 V., c. 31, s. 47.)

58. No dividend or bonus shall ever be declared so as to impair the paid-up capital of the bank.

2. The directors who knowingly and wilfully concur in the declaration or making payable of any dividend or bonus whereby the paid-up capital of the bank is impaired shall be jointly and severally liable for the amount of such dividend or bonus as a debt due by them to the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 48.)

59. No division of profits, either by way of dividends or bonus, or both combined, or in any other way, exceeding

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the rate of eight per centum per annum, shall be made by the bank unless after making the same the bank has a rest or reserve fund equal to at least thirty per cent of its paid-up capital after deducting all bad and doubtful debts. (53 V., c. 31, s. 49.)

CASH RESERVES.

60. The bank shall hold not less than forty per centum of its cash reserves in dominion notes.

2. The minister shall make such arrangements as are necessary for ensuring the delivery of dominion notes to any bank in exchange for an equivalent amount of specie at the several offices at which dominion notes are redeemable in the cities of Toronto, Montreal, Halifax, St. John, Winnipeg, Victoria, and Charlottetown, respectively.

3. Such notes shall be redeemable at the office for redemption of dominion notes in the place where the specie is given in exchange. (53 V., c. 31, s. 50.)

THE ISSUE AND CIRCULATION OF NOTES.

61. The bank may issue and reissue notes payable to bearer on demand and intended for circulation: *Provided*, That (a) the bank shall not, during any period of suspension of payment of its liabilities issue or reissue any such notes; and (b) if, after any such suspension, the bank resumes business without the consent in writing of the curator, hereinafter provided for, it shall not issue or reissue any of such notes until authorized by the treasury board so to do.

2. No such note shall be for a sum less than five dollars or for any sum which is not a multiple of five dollars.

3. The total amount of such notes in circulation at any time shall not exceed the amount of the unimpaired paid-up capital of the bank.

4. Notwithstanding anything in this section contained, the total amount of such notes of the Bank of British

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North America in circulation at any time shall not exceed seventy-five per centum of the unimpaired paid-up capital of the bank: *Provided*, That (a) the bank may issue such notes in excess of the said seventy-five per centum upon depositing with the minister, in respect of the excess, in cash or bonds of the Dominion of Canada, an amount equal to the excess; and the cash or bonds so deposited shall, in the event of the suspension of the bank, be available by the minister for the redemption of the notes issued in excess as aforesaid; and (b) the total amount of such notes of the bank in circulation at any time shall in no case exceed its unimpaired paid-up capital.

5. All notes heretofore issued or reissued by any bank and now in circulation, which are for a sum less than five dollars or for a sum which is not a multiple of five dollars, shall be called in and canceled as soon as practicable. (53 V., c. 31, s. 51; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 10.)

62. Notwithstanding the provisions of the last preceding section, any bank may issue and reissue, at any office or agency of the bank in any British colony or possession other than Canada, notes of the bank payable to bearer on demand and intended for circulation in such colony or possession, for the sum of one pound sterling each, or for any multiple of such sum, or for the sum of five dollars each, or for any multiple of such sum, of the dollars in commercial use in such colony or possession, if the issue or reissue of such notes is not forbidden by the laws of such colony or possession.

2. No issue of notes of the denomination of five such dollars, or any multiple thereof, shall be made in any such British colony or possession unless nor until the governor in council on the report of the treasury board determines the rate in Canadian currency at which such notes shall be circulated as forming part of the total amount of the

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notes in circulation within the meaning of the last preceding section.

3. The notes so issued shall be redeemable at par at any office or agency of the bank in the colony or possession in which they are issued for circulation and not elsewhere, except as in this section specially provided; and the place of redemption of such notes shall be legibly printed or stamped across the face of each note so issued.

4. In the event of the bank ceasing to have an office or agency in any such British colony or possession, all notes issued in such colony or possession under the provisions of this section shall become payable and redeemable at the rate of four dollars and eighty-six and two-thirds cents per pound sterling, or, in the case of the issue of notes of the denomination of five dollars or any multiple thereof, of the dollars in commercial use in such colony or possession, at the rate established by the governor in council as required by this section, in the same manner as notes of the bank issued in Canada are payable and redeemable.

5. The amount of the notes at any time in circulation in any such colony or possession, issued under the provisions of this section, shall, at the rate mentioned in the last preceding subsection, form part of the total amount of the notes in circulation within the meaning of the last preceding section, and, except as herein otherwise specially provided, shall be subject to all the provisions of this act.

6. No notes issued for circulation in a British colony or possession other than Canada shall be reissued in Canada.

7. Nothing in this section contained shall be construed to authorize any bank (a) to increase the total amount of its notes in circulation in Canada and elsewhere beyond the limit fixed by the last preceding section, or (b) to issue or reissue in Canada notes payable to bearer on demand and intended for circulation for a sum less than

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five dollars or for a sum which is not a multiple of five dollars. (4 E. VII., c. 3, ss. 1, 2, 3, and 4.)

63. The bank shall not pledge, assign, or hypothecate its notes; and no advance or loan made on the security of the notes of a bank shall be recoverable from the bank or its assets. (53 V., c. 31, s. 52.)

64. The moneys heretofore paid to and now deposited with the minister by the banks to which this act applies, constituting the fund known as the bank circulation redemption fund, shall continue to be held by the minister for the purposes and subject to the provisions in this section mentioned and contained.

2. The minister shall, upon the issue of a certificate under this act authorizing a bank to issue notes and commence the business of banking, retain, out of any moneys of such bank then in his possession, the sum of five thousand dollars, which sum shall be held for the purposes of this section until the annual adjustment hereinafter provided for takes place in the year then next following.

3. The amount at the credit of such bank shall, at such next annual adjustment, be adjusted by payment to or by the bank of such sum as is necessary to make the amount of money at the credit of the bank equal to five per centum of the average amount of its notes in circulation from the time it commenced business to the time of such adjustment, and such sum shall thereafter be adjusted annually as hereinafter provided.

4. The amounts heretofore and from time to time hereafter paid, to be retained and held by the minister as by this section provided, shall continue to form and shall form the circulation fund.

5. The circulation fund shall continue to be held as heretofore for the sole purpose of payment, in the event of the suspension by a bank of payment in specie or Dominion notes of any of its liabilities as they accrue, of the notes

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then issued or reissued by such bank, intended for circulation, and then in circulation, and interest thereon.

6. The circulation fund shall bear interest at the rate of three per centum per annum.

7. The circulation fund shall be adjusted, as soon as possible after the thirtieth day of June in each year, in such a way as to make the amount at the credit of each bank contributing thereto, unless herein otherwise specially provided, equal to five per centum of the average note circulation of such bank during the then last preceding twelve months.

8. The average note circulation of a bank during any period shall be determined from the average of the amount of its notes in circulation, as shown by the monthly returns for such period made by the bank to the minister; and where, in any return, the greatest amount of notes in circulation at any time during the month is given, such amount shall, for the purposes of this section, be taken to be the amount of the notes of the bank in circulation during the month to which such return relates.

9. The minister shall with respect to all notes paid out of the circulation fund have the same rights as any other holder of the notes of the bank: *Provided*, That all such notes, and all interest thereon, so paid by the minister, after the amount at the credit of such bank in the circulation fund, and all interest due or accruing due thereon, has been exhausted, shall bear interest, at the rate of three per centum per annum, from the time such notes and interest are paid until such notes and interest are repaid to the minister by or out of the assets of such bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 13.)

65. In the event of the suspension by a bank of payment in specie or Dominion notes of any of its liabilities as they accrue, the notes of the bank, issued or reissued, intended for circulation, and then in circulation, shall bear interest at the rate of five per centum per annum,

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from the day of the suspension to such day as is named by the directors, or by the liquidator, receiver, assignee, or other proper official, for the payment thereof.

2. Notice of such day shall be given by advertising for at least three days in a newspaper published in the place in which the head office of the bank is situate.

3. If any notes presented for payment on or after any day named for payment thereof are not paid, all notes then unpaid and in circulation shall continue to bear interest until such further day as is named for payment thereof, of which day notice shall be given in manner hereinbefore provided.

4. If the directors of the bank or the liquidator, receiver, assignee, or other proper official fails to make arrangements, within two months from the day of the suspension of payment by the bank, for the payment of all of its notes and interest thereon, the minister may make arrangements for the payment, out of the circulation fund, of the notes remaining unpaid and all interest thereon, and the minister shall give such notice of the payment as he thinks expedient.

5. Notwithstanding anything herein contained all interest upon such notes shall cease upon and from the date named by the minister for such payment.

6. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to impose any liability upon the government of Canada, or upon the minister, beyond the amount available from time to time out of the circulation fund. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 11.)

66. All payments made from the circulation fund shall be without regard to the amount contributed thereto by the bank in respect of whose notes the payments are made.

2. If the payments from the circulation fund exceed the amount contributed to the circulation fund by the bank so suspending payment, and all interest due or accruing due to such bank thereon, the other banks to which this

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act applies shall, on demand, made good to the circulation fund the amount of the excess, proportionately to the amount which each such other bank had or should have contributed to the circulation fund, at the time of the suspension of the bank in respect of whose notes the payments are made: *Provided*, That (a) each of such other banks shall only be called upon to make good to the circulation fund its share of the excess in payments not exceeding, in any one year, one per centum of the average amount of its notes in circulation; (b) such circulation shall be ascertained in such manner as the minister decides; and (c) the minister's decision shall be final.

3. All amounts recovered and received by the minister from the bank on account of which such payments were made shall, after the amount of such excess has been made good as aforesaid, be distributed among the banks contributing to make good such excess, proportionately to the amount contributed by each. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 12.)

67. In the event of the winding up of the business of a bank by reason of insolvency or otherwise, the treasury board may, on the application of the directors, or of the liquidator, receiver, assignee, or other proper official, and on being satisfied that proper arrangements have been made for the payment of the notes of the bank and any interest thereon, pay over to the directors, liquidator, receiver, assignee, or other proper official, the amount of the circulation fund at the credit of the bank, or such portion thereof as it thinks expedient. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54.)

68. The treasury board may make all such rules and regulations as it thinks expedient with reference to (a) the payment of any moneys out of the circulation fund, and the manner, place, and time of such payments; (b) the collection of all amounts due to the circulation fund; (c) all accounts to be kept in connection therewith; and

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(d) generally the management of the circulation fund and all matters relating thereto. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54.)

69. The minister may, in his official name, by action in the exchequer court of Canada, enforce payment, with cost of action, of any sum due and payable by any bank which should form part of the circulation fund. (53 V., c. 31, s. 54.)

70. The bank shall make such arrangements as are necessary to insure the circulation at par, in any and every part of Canada, of all notes issued or reissued by it and intended for circulation; and towards this purpose the bank shall establish agencies for the redemption and payment of its notes at the cities of Toronto, Montreal, Halifax, St. John, Winnipeg, Victoria, and Charlottetown, and at such other places as are from time to time designated by the treasury board. (53 V., c. 31, s. 55.)

71. The bank shall always receive in payment its own notes at par at any of its offices, and whether they are made payable there or not.

2. The chief place of business of the bank shall always be one of the places at which its notes are made payable. (53 V., c. 31, s. 56.)

72. The bank, when making any payment, shall, on the request of the person to whom the payment is to be made, pay the same, or such part thereof, not exceeding one hundred dollars, as such person requests, in Dominion notes for one, two, or four dollars each, at the option of such person.

2. No payment, whether in Dominion notes or bank notes, shall be made in bills that are torn or partially defaced by excessive handling. (53 V., c. 31, s. 57.)

73. The bonds, obligations, and bills, obligatory or of credit, of the bank under its corporate seal, signed by the president or vice-president, and countersigned by a cashier or assistant cashier, which are made payable to any person, shall be assignable by indorsement thereon.

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2. The bills or notes of the bank signed by the president, vice-president, cashier, or other officer appointed by the directors of the bank to sign the same, promising the payment of money to any person, or to his order, or to the bearer, though not under the corporate seal of the bank, shall be binding and obligatory on the bank, in like manner and with the like force and effect as they would be upon any private person, if issued by him in his private or natural capacity, and shall be assignable in like manner as if they were so issued by a private person in his natural capacity.

3. The directors of the bank may, from time to time, authorize or depute any cashier, assistant cashier, or officer of the bank, or any director other than the president or vice-president, or any cashier, manager, or local director of any branch or office of discount and deposit of the bank, to sign the notes of the bank intended for circulation. (53 V., c. 31, s. 58.)

74. All bank notes and bills whereon the name of any person intrusted or authorized to sign such notes or bills on behalf of the bank is impressed by machinery provided for that purpose, by or with the authority of the bank, shall be good and valid to all intents and purposes, as if such notes and bills had been subscribed in the proper handwriting of the person intrusted or authorized by the bank to sign the same respectively, and shall be bank notes and bills within the meaning of all laws and statutes whatever, and may be described as bank notes or bills in all indictments and civil or criminal proceedings whatever: *Provided*, That at least one signature to each note or bill must be in the actual handwriting of a person authorized to sign such note or bill. (53 V., c. 31, s. 59.)

75. Every officer charged with the receipt or disbursement of public moneys, and every officer of any bank, and every person acting as or employed by any banker, shall

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stamp or write in plain letters, upon every counterfeit or fraudulent note issued in the form of a Dominion or bank note, and intended to circulate as money, which is presented to him at his place of business, the word, "Counterfeit," "Altered," or "Worthless."

2. If such officer or person wrongfully stamps any genuine note he shall, upon presentation, redeem it at the face value thereof. (53 V., c. 31, s. 62.)

THE BUSINESS AND POWERS OF A BANK.

76. The bank may (a) open branches, agencies and offices; (b) engage in and carry on business as a dealer in gold and silver coin and bullion; (c) deal in, discount and lend money and make advances upon the security of, and take as collateral security for any loan made by it, bills of exchange, promissory notes, and other negotiable securities, or the stock, bonds, debentures, and obligations of municipal and other corporations, whether secured by mortgage or otherwise, or Dominion, provincial, British, foreign and other public securities; and, (d) engage in and carry on such business generally as appertains to the business of banking.

2. Except as authorized by this act, the bank shall not, either directly or indirectly, (a) deal in the buying or selling, or bartering of goods, wares, and merchandise, or engage or be engaged in any trade or business whatsoever; (b) purchase, or deal in, or lend money, or make advances upon the security or pledge of any share of its own capital stock, or of the capital stock of any bank; or, (c) lend money or make advances upon the security, mortgage or hypothecation of any lands, tenements, or immovable property, or of any ships or other vessels, or upon the security of any goods, wares, and merchandise. (53 V., c. 31, s. 64.)

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77. The bank shall have a privileged lien, for any debt or liability for any debt to the bank, on the shares of its own capital stock, and on any unpaid dividends of the debtor or person liable, and may decline to allow any transfer of the shares of such debtor or person until the debt is paid.

2. The bank shall, within twelve months after the debt has accrued and become payable, sell such shares: *Provided*, That notice shall be given to the holder of the shares of the intention of the bank to sell the same, by mailing the notice, in the post office, post paid, to the last known address of the holder, at least thirty days prior to the sale.

3. Upon the sale being made the president, vice-president, manager or cashier shall execute a transfer of the shares to the purchaser thereof in the usual transfer book of the bank.

4. Such transfers shall vest in the purchaser all the rights in or to the said shares which were possessed by the holder thereof, with the same obligation of warranty on his part as if he were the vendor thereof, but without any warranty from the bank or by the officer of the bank executing the transfer. (53 V., c. 31, s. 65.)

78. The stock, bonds, debentures or securities, acquired and held by the bank as collateral security, may, in case of default in the payment of the debt, for the securing of which they were so acquired and held, be dealt with, sold and conveyed, either in like manner and subject to the same restrictions as are herein provided in respect of stock of the bank on which it has acquired a lien under this act, or in like manner as and subject to the restrictions under which a private individual might in like circumstances deal with, sell and convey the same: *Provided*, That the bank shall not be obliged to sell within twelve months.

2. The right so to deal with and dispose of such stock, bonds, debentures or securities in manner aforesaid may be waived or varied by any agreement between the bank

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and the owner of the stock, bonds, debentures or securities, made at the time at which such debt was incurred, or, if the time of payment of the debt has been extended, then by an agreement made at the time of the extension. (53 V., c. 31, s. 66.)

79. The bank may acquire and hold real and immovable property for its actual use and occupation and the management of its business, and may sell or dispose of the same and acquire other property in its stead for the same purpose. (53 V., c. 31, s. 67.)

80. The bank may take, hold and dispose of mortgages and hypothèques upon real or personal, immovable or movable property, by way of additional security for debts contracted to the bank in the course of its business.

2. The rights, powers, and privileges which the bank is by this act declared to have, or to have had, in respect of real or immovable property mortgaged to it, shall be held and possessed by it in respect of any personal or movable property which is mortgaged or hypothecated to the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 68.)

81. The bank may purchase any lands or real or immovable property offered for sale (a) under execution, or in insolvency, or under the order or decree of a court, as belonging to any debtor to the bank; or (b) by a mortgagee or other encumbrancer, having priority over a mortgage or other encumbrance held by the bank; or (c) by the bank under a power of sale given to it for that purpose; in cases in which, under similar circumstances, an individual could so purchase, without any restriction as to the value of the property which it may so purchase, and may acquire a title thereto as any individual, purchasing at sheriff's sale, or under a power of sale, in like circumstances could do, and may take, have, hold, and dispose of the same at pleasure. (53 V., c. 31, s. 69.)

82. The bank may acquire and hold an absolute title in or to real or immovable property mortgaged to it as secur-

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ity for a debt due or owing to it, either by the obtaining of a release of the equity of redemption in the mortgaged property, or by procuring a foreclosure, or by other means whereby, as between individuals, an equity of redemption can, by law, be barred, and may purchase and acquire any prior mortgage or charge on such property.

2. Nothing in any charter, act or law shall be construed as ever having been intended to prevent or as preventing the bank from acquiring and holding an absolute title to and in any such mortgaged real or immovable property, whatever the value thereof, or from exercising or acting upon any power of sale contained in any mortgage given to or held by the bank, authorizing or enabling it to sell or convey away any property so mortgaged. (53 V., c. 31, s. 71; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 14.)

83. No bank shall hold any real or immovable property, howsoever acquired, except such as is required for its own use, for any period exceeding seven years from the date of the acquisition thereof, or any extension of such period as in this section provided, and such property shall be absolutely sold or disposed of, within such period or extended period, as the case may be, so that the bank shall no longer retain any interest therein unless by way of security.

2. The treasury board may direct that the time for the sale or disposal of any such real or immovable property shall be extended for a further period or periods, not to exceed five years.

3. The whole period during which the bank may so hold such property under the foregoing provisions of this section shall not exceed twelve years from the date of the acquisition thereof.

4. Any real or immovable property, not required by the bank for its own use, held by the bank for a longer period than authorized by the foregoing provisions of this section shall be liable to be forfeited to His Majesty

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for the use of the Dominion of Canada: *Provided*, That (a) no such forfeiture shall take effect until the expiration of at least six calendar months after notice in writing to the bank by the minister of the intention of His Majesty to claim the forfeiture; and, (b) the bank may, notwithstanding such notice, before the forfeiture is effected sell or dispose of the property free from liability to forfeiture.

5. The provisions of this section shall apply to any real or immovable property heretofore acquired by the bank and held by it at the time of the coming into force of this act. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 14.)

84. The bank may lend money upon the security of standing timber, and the rights or licenses held by persons to cut or remove such timber. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 16.)

85. Every bank advancing money in aid of the building of any ship or vessel shall have the same right of acquiring and holding security upon such ship or vessel, while building and when completed, either by way of mortgage, hypothèque, hypothecation, privilege or lien thereon, or purchase or transfer thereof, as individuals have in the province wherein the ship or vessel is being built.

2. The bank may, for the purpose of obtaining and enforcing such security, avail itself of all such rights and means, and shall be subject to all such obligations, limitations, and conditions, as are, by the law of such province, conferred or imposed upon individuals making such advances. (53 V., c. 31, s. 72.)

86. The bank may acquire and hold any warehouse receipt or bill of lading as collateral security for the payment of any debt incurred in its favour, or as security for any liability incurred by it for any person, in the course of its banking business.

2. Any warehouse receipt or bill of lading so acquired shall vest in the bank, from the date of the acquisition thereof, (a) all the right and title to such warehouse

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receipt or bill of lading and to the goods covered thereby of the previous holder or owner thereof; or, (b) all the right and title to the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned therein of the person from whom the same were received or acquired by the bank, if the warehouse receipt or bill of lading is made directly in favour of the bank, instead of to the previous holder or owner of such goods, wares and merchandise. (53 V., c. 31, s. 73; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 15.)

87. If the previous holder of such warehouse receipt or bill of lading is any person, (a) entrusted with the possession of the goods, wares and merchandise mentioned therein, by or by the authority of the owner thereof; or, (b) to whom such goods, wares and merchandise are, by or by the authority of the owner thereof, consigned; or, (c) who, by or by the authority of the owner of such goods, wares and merchandise, is possessed of any bill of lading, receipt, order or other document covering the same, such as is used in the course of business as proof of the possession or control of goods, wares and merchandise, or as authorizing or purporting to authorize, either by endorsement or by delivery, the possessor of such a document to transfer or receive the goods, wares and merchandise thereby represented; the bank shall be, upon the acquisition of such warehouse receipt or bill of lading, vested with all the right and title of the owner of such goods, wares and merchandise, subject to the right of the owner to have the same retransferred to him if the debt or liability, as security for which such warehouse receipt or bill of lading is held by the bank, is paid.

2. Any person shall be deemed to be the possessor of such goods, wares and merchandise, bill of lading, receipt, order or other document as aforesaid, (a) who is in actual possession thereof; or, (b) for whom, or subject to whose control, the same are held by any person. (53 V., c. 31, s. 73; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 15.)

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88. The bank may lend money to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in products of agriculture, the forest, quarry and mine, or the sea, lakes and rivers, or to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in live stock or dead stock and the products thereof, upon the security of such products, or of such live stock or dead stock and the products thereof.

2. The bank may allow the goods, wares and merchandise covered by such security to be removed and other goods, wares and merchandise, such as mentioned in the last preceding subsection, to be substituted therefor, if the goods, wares and merchandise so substituted are of substantially the same character, and of substantially the same value as, or of less value than, those for which they have been so substituted; and the goods, wares and merchandise so substituted shall be covered by such security as if originally covered thereby.

3. The bank may lend money to any person engaged in business as a wholesale manufacturer of any goods, wares and merchandise, upon the security of the goods, wares and merchandise manufactured by him, or procured for such manufacture.

4. Any such security, as mentioned in the foregoing provisions of this section, may be given by the owner of said goods, wares and merchandise, stock or products.

5. The security may be taken in the form set forth in Schedule C to this act, or to the like effect.

6. The bank shall, by virtue of such security, acquire the same rights and powers in respect to the goods, wares and merchandise, stock or products covered thereby, as if it had acquired the same by virtue of a warehouse receipt. (53 V., c. 31, s. 74; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 17.)

89. If goods, wares and merchandise are manufactured or produced from the goods, wares and merchandise, or any of them, included in or covered by any warehouse receipt, or included in or covered by any security given under the

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last preceding section, while so covered, the bank holding such warehouse receipt or security shall hold or continue to hold such goods, wares and merchandise, during the process and after the completion of such manufacture or production, with the same right and title, and for the same purposes and upon the same conditions, as it held or could have held the original goods, wares and merchandise.

2. All advances made on the security of any bill of lading or warehouse receipt, or of any security given under the last preceding section, shall give to the bank making the advances a claim for the repayment of the advances on the goods, wares and merchandise therein mentioned, or into which they have been converted, prior to and by preference over the claim of any unpaid vendor: *Provided*, That such preference shall not be given over the claim of any unpaid vendor who had a lien upon the goods, wares and merchandise at the time of the acquisition by the bank of such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security, unless the same was acquired without knowledge on the part of the bank of such lien.

3. In the event of the non-payment at maturity of any debt or liability secured by a warehouse receipt or bill of lading, or secured by any security given under the last preceding section, the bank may sell the goods, wares and merchandise mentioned therein, or so much thereof as will suffice to pay such debt or liability with interest and expenses, returning the surplus, if any, to the person from whom the warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security, or the goods, wares and merchandise mentioned therein, as the case may be, were acquired: *Provided*, That such power of sale shall be exercised subject to the following provisions, namely: (a) No sale, without the consent in writing of the owner of any timber, boards, deals, staves, saw-logs or other lumber, shall be made under this act until notice of the time and place of such sale has been given by a regis-

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tered letter, mailed in the post office, post paid, to the last known address of the pledger thereof, at least thirty days prior to the sale thereof; (b) no goods, wares and merchandise, other than timber, boards, deals, staves, saw-logs or other lumber, shall be sold by the bank under this act without the consent of the owner until notice of the time and place of sale has been given by a registered letter, mailed in the post-office, post paid, to the last known address of the pledger thereof, at least ten days prior to the sale thereof; (c) every sale under such power of sale without the consent of the owner shall be made by public auction, after notice thereof by advertisement in at least two newspapers published in or nearest to the place where the sale is to be made, stating the time and place thereof; and, if the sale is in the province of Quebec, then at least one of such newspapers shall be a newspaper published in the English language, and one other such newspaper shall be a newspaper published in the French language. (53 V., c. 31, ss. 76, 77 and 78; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 19.)

90. The bank shall not acquire or hold any warehouse receipt or bill of lading, or any such security as aforesaid, to secure the payment of any bill, note, debt, or liability, unless such bill, note, debt, or liability is negotiated or contracted (a) at the time of the acquisition thereof by the bank, or (b) upon the written promise or agreement that such warehouse receipt or bill of lading or security would be given to the bank: *Provided*, That such bill, note, debt, or liability may be renewed, or the time for the payment thereof extended, without affecting any such security.

2. The bank may (a) on shipment of any goods, wares and merchandise for which it holds a warehouse receipt, or any such security as aforesaid, surrender such receipt or security and receive a bill of lading in exchange therefor or (b) on the receipt of any goods, wares and merchandise for which it holds a bill of lading, or any such security as aforesaid, surrender such bill of lading or secu-

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city, store the goods, wares and merchandise, and take a warehouse receipt therefor, or ship the goods, wares and merchandise, or part of them, and take another bill of lading therefor. (53 V., c. 31, s. 75; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 18.)

91. The bank may stipulate for, take, reserve or exact any rate of interest or discount, not exceeding seven per centum per annum, and may receive and take in advance any such rate, but no higher rate of interest shall be recoverable by the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 80.)

92. The bank may allow any rate of interest whatever upon money deposited with it. (53 V., c. 31, s. 80.)

93. When any note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper, payable at any of the bank's places or seats of business, branches, agencies or offices of discount and deposit in Canada, is discounted at any other of the bank's places or seats of business, branches, agencies or offices of discount and deposit, the bank may, in order to defray the expenses attending the collection thereof, receive or retain, in addition to the discount thereon, a percentage calculated upon the amount of such note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper, not exceeding, if the note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper is to run (a) for less than thirty days, one-eighth of one per centum; (b) for thirty days or over but less than sixty days, one-fourth of one per centum; (c) for sixty days or over but less than ninety days, three-eighths of one per centum; and (d) for ninety days or over, one-half of one per centum. (53 V., c. 31, s. 82.)

94. The bank may, in discounting any note, bill, or other negotiable security or paper, bona fide payable at any place in Canada other than that at which it is discounted, and other than one of its own places or seats of business, branches, agencies, or offices of discount and deposit in Canada, receive and retain, in addition to the discount thereon, a sum not exceeding one-half of one per centum on the amount thereof to defray the expenses

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of agency and charges in collecting the same. (53 V., c. 31, s. 83.)

95. The bank may, subject to the provisions of this section, without the authority, aid, assistance, or intervention of any other person or official being required (a) receive deposits from any person whomsoever, whatever his age, status, or condition in life, and whether such person is qualified by law to enter into ordinary contracts or not, and (b) from time to time repay any or all of the principal thereof, and pay the whole or any part of the interest thereon to such person, unless before such repayment the money so deposited in the bank is lawfully claimed as the property of some other person.

2. In the case of any such lawful claim the money so deposited may be paid to the depositor with the consent of the claimant, or to the claimant with the consent of the depositor.

3. If the person making any such deposit could not, under the law of the province where the deposit is made, deposit and withdraw money in and from a bank without this section, the total amount to be received from such person on deposit shall not at any time exceed the sum of five hundred dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 84.)

96. The bank shall not be bound to see to the execution of any trust, whether expressed, implied, or constructive, to which any deposit made under the authority of this act is subject.

2. Except only in the case of a lawful claim, by some other person before repayment, the receipt of the person in whose name any such deposit stands, or, if it stands in the names of two persons, the receipt of one, or, if it stands in the names of more than two persons, the receipt of a majority of such persons, shall, notwithstanding any trust to which such deposit is then subject, and whether or not the bank sought to be charged with such trust, and with which the deposit has been made, had notice thereof,

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be a sufficient discharge to all concerned for the payment of any money payable in respect of such deposit.

3. The bank shall not be bound to see to the application of the money paid upon such receipt. (53 V., c. 31, s. 84.)

97. If a person dies, having a deposit with the bank not exceeding the sum of five hundred dollars, the production to the bank and deposit with it of (a) any authenticated copy of the probate of the will of the deceased depositor, or of letters of administration of his estate, or of letters of verification of heirship, or of the act of curatorship or tutorship, granted by any court in Canada having power to grant the same, or by any court or authority in England, Wales, Ireland, or any British colony, or of any testament, testamentary or testament dative expedé in Scotland; or, (b) an authentic notarial copy of the will of the deceased depositor, if such will is in notarial form, according to the law of the Province of Quebec; or, (c) if the deceased depositor died out of His Majesty's dominions, any authenticated copy of the probate of his will, or letters of administration of his property, or other document of like import, granted by any court or authority having the requisite power in such matters, shall be sufficient justification and authority to the directors for paying such deposit, in pursuance of and in conformity to such probate, letters of administration, or other document as aforesaid. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 20.)

DOMINION GOVERNMENT CHEQUES.

98. The bank shall not charge any discount or commission for the cashing of any official cheque of the government of Canada or of any department thereof, whether drawn on the bank cashing the cheque or on any other bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 103.)

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THE PURCHASE OF THE ASSETS OF A BANK.

99. Any bank may sell the whole or any portion of its assets to any other bank which may purchase such assets; and the selling and purchasing banks may, for such purposes, enter into an agreement of sale and purchase, which agreement shall contain all the terms and conditions connected with the sale and purchase of such assets. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 33.)

100. The consideration for any such sale and purchase may be as agreed upon between the selling and purchasing banks.

2. If the consideration, or any portion thereof, is shares of the capital stock of the purchasing bank, the agreement shall provide for the amount of the shares of the purchasing bank to be paid to the selling bank.

3. Until such shares so paid to the selling bank have been sold by such bank, or have been distributed among and accepted by the shareholders of such bank, they shall not be considered issued shares of the purchasing bank for the purposes of its note circulation. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 34.)

101. The agreement of sale and purchase shall be submitted to the shareholders of the selling bank, either at the annual general meeting of such bank or at a special general meeting thereof called for the purpose.

2. A copy of the agreement shall be mailed, postpaid, to each shareholder of such bank to his last known address, at least four weeks previously to the date of the meeting at which the agreement is to be submitted, together with a notice of the time and place of the holding of such meeting. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 35.)

102. If at such meeting the agreement is approved by resolution carried by the votes of shareholders, present in person or represented by proxy, representing not less than two-thirds of the amount of the subscribed capital

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stock of the bank, the agreement may be executed under the seals of the banks, parties thereto, and application may be made to the governor in council, through the minister, for approval thereof.

2. Until the agreement is approved by the governor in council it shall not be of any force or effect. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 36.)

103. If the agreement provides for the payment of the consideration for such sale and purchase, in whole or in part, in shares of the capital stock of the purchasing bank, and for such purpose it is necessary to increase the capital stock of such bank, the agreement shall not be executed on behalf of the purchasing bank, unless nor until it is approved by the shareholders thereof at the annual general meeting, or at a special general meeting of such shareholders. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 37.)

104. The governor in council may, on the application for his approval of the agreement, approve of the increase of the capital stock of the purchasing bank, which is necessary to provide for the payment of the shares of such bank to the selling bank, as provided in the said agreement. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 38.)

105. The provisions of this act with regard to (a) the increase of the capital stock of the bank by by-law of the shareholders approved by the treasury board; and (b) the allotment and sale of such increased stock shall not apply to any increase of stock made or provided for under the authority of the last two preceding sections. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 38.)

106. The approval of the governor in council shall not be given to the agreement unless (a) the approval thereof is recommended by the treasury board; (b) the application for approval thereof is made, by or on behalf of the bank executing it, within three months from the date of execution of the agreement; and (c) it appears to the satisfaction of the governor in council that all the require-

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ments of this act in connection with the approval of the agreement by the shareholders of the selling and purchasing banks have been complied with, and that notice of the intention of the banks to apply to the governor in council for the approval of the agreement has been published for at least four weeks in the *Canada Gazette*, and in one or more newspapers published in places where the chief offices or places of business of the banks are situate.

2. Such banks shall afford all information that the minister requires.

3. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the governor in council or the treasury board from refusing to approve of the agreement or to recommend its approval. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 39.)

107. The agreement shall not be approved of unless it appears that (a) proper provisions have been made for the payment of the liabilities of the selling bank; (b) the agreement provides for the assumption and payment by the purchasing bank of the notes of the selling bank issued and intended for circulation, outstanding and in circulation; and, (c) the amounts of the notes of both the purchasing and selling banks, issued for circulation, outstanding and in circulation, as shown by the then last monthly returns of the banks, do not together exceed the then paid-up capital of the purchasing bank; or, if the amount of such notes does exceed such paid-up capital, an amount in cash, equal to the excess of such notes over such paid-up capital, has been deposited by the purchasing bank with the minister.

2. The amount so deposited as aforesaid shall be held by the minister as security for the redemption of the said excess of notes; and, when such excess, or any portion thereof, has been redeemed and cancelled, the amount so deposited, or an amount equal to the amount of excess so redeemed and cancelled, shall, from time to time, be repaid by the minister to the purchasing bank, but with-

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out interest, on the application of such bank, and on the production of such evidence as the minister may require to show that the notes in regard to which such repayment is asked have been redeemed and cancelled. (63-64 V., c. 27, s. 1.)

108. The notes of the selling bank so assumed and to be paid by the purchasing bank shall, on the approval of the agreement, be deemed to be, for all intents and purposes, notes of the purchasing bank issued for circulation; and the purchasing bank shall be liable in the same manner and to the same extent as if it had issued them for circulation.

2. The amount at the credit of the selling bank in the circulation fund shall, on the approval of the agreement, be transferred to the credit of the purchasing bank.

3. The notes of the selling bank shall not be reissued, but shall be called in, redeemed, and cancelled as quickly as possible. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 41.)

109. The approval by the governor in council of the agreement shall be evidenced by a certified copy of the order in council approving thereof.

2. Such certified copy shall be conclusive evidence of the approval of the agreement therein referred to, and of the regularity of all proceedings in connection therewith. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 42.)

110. On the agreement being approved of by the governor in council, the assets therein referred to as sold and purchased shall, in accordance with and subject to the terms thereof, and without any further conveyance, become vested in the purchasing bank.

2. The selling bank shall, from time to time, subject to the terms of the agreement, execute such formal and separate conveyances, assignments, and assurances, for registration purposes or otherwise, as are reasonably required to confirm or evidence the vesting in the pur-

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chasing bank of the full title or ownership of the assets referred to in the agreement (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 43.)

111. As soon as the agreement is approved of by the governor in council, the selling bank shall cease to issue or reissue notes for circulation, and shall cease to transact any business, except such as is necessary to enable it to carry out the agreement, to realize upon any assets not included in the agreement, to pay and discharge its liabilities, and generally to wind up its business; and the charter or act of incorporation of such bank, and any acts in amendment thereof then in force, shall continue in force only for the purposes in this section specified. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 44.)

RETURNS.

112. Monthly returns shall be made by the bank to the minister in the form set forth in Schedule D to this act.

2. Such returns shall be made up and sent in within the first fifteen days of each month, and shall exhibit the condition of the bank on the last juridical day of the month last preceding.

3. Such returns shall be signed by the chief accountant and by the president, or vice-president, or the director then acting as president, and by the manager, cashier, or other principal officer of the bank at its chief place of business. (53 V., c. 31, s. 85.)

113. The minister may also call for special returns from any bank, whenever, in his judgment, they are necessary to afford a full and complete knowledge of its condition.

2. Such special returns shall be made and signed in the manner and by the persons specified in the last preceding section.

3. Such special returns shall be made and sent in within thirty days from the date of the demand therefor by the minister: *Provided*, That the minister may extend the time for sending in such special returns for such further

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period, not exceeding thirty days, as he thinks expedient. (53 V., c. 31, s. 86.)

114. The bank shall, within twenty days after the close of each calendar year, transmit or deliver to the minister a return (a) of all dividends which have remained unpaid for more than five years; and (b) of all amounts or balances in respect of which no transactions have taken place, or upon which no interest has been paid, during the five years prior to the date of such return: *Provided*, That, in the case of moneys deposited for a fixed period, the said term of five years shall be reckoned from the date of the termination of such fixed period.

2. The return mentioned in the last preceding subsection shall set forth (a) the name of each shareholder or creditor to whom such dividends, amounts, or balances are, according to the books of the bank, payable; (b) the last known address of each such shareholder or creditor; (c) the amount due to each such shareholder or creditor; (d) the agency of the bank at which the last transaction took place; (e) the date of such last transaction; and, (f) if such shareholder or creditor is known to the bank to be dead, the names and addresses of his legal representatives, so far as known to the bank.

3. The bank shall likewise, within twenty days after the close of each calendar year, transmit or deliver to the minister a return of all drafts or bills of exchange issued by the bank to any person and remaining unpaid for more than five years prior to the date of such return, setting forth, so far as known, (a) the names of the persons to whom or at whose request such drafts or bills of exchange were issued; (b) the addresses of such persons; (c) the names of the payees of such drafts or bills of exchange; (d) the amounts and dates of such drafts or bills of exchange; (e) the names of the places where such drafts or bills of exchange were payable; and (f) the agencies of the

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bank, respectively, from which such drafts or bills of exchange were issued.

4. The returns required by the foregoing provisions of this section shall be signed by the chief accountant, and by the president or vice-president or the director then acting as president, and by the manager, cashier, or other principal officer of the bank, at its chief place of business.

5. The bank shall also, within twenty days after the close of each calendar year, transmit or deliver to the minister a certified list showing (a) the names of the shareholders of the bank on the last day of such calendar year, with their additions and residences; (b) the number of shares then held by them, respectively; and (c) the value at par of such shares.

6. The minister shall lay such returns and lists before Parliament at the next session thereof. (53 V., c. 31, ss. 87 and 88; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 21.)

PAYMENTS TO THE MINISTER UPON WINDING UP.

115. If, in the event of the winding up of the business of the bank in insolvency, or under any general winding-up act, or otherwise, any moneys payable by the liquidator, either to shareholders or depositors, remain unclaimed (a) for the period of three years from the date of suspension of payment by the bank; or (b) for a like period from the commencement of the winding up of such business; or (c) until the final winding up of such business, if the business is finally wound up before the expiration of the said three years; such moneys and all interest thereon shall, notwithstanding any statute of limitations or other act relating to prescription, be paid to the minister, to be held by him subject to all rightful claims on behalf of any person other than the bank.

2. If a claim to any moneys so paid is thereafter established to the satisfaction of the treasury board, the governor in council shall, on the report of the treasury board,

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direct payment thereof to be made to the person entitled thereto, together with interest on the principal sum thereof, at the rate of three per centum per annum, for a period not exceeding six years from the date of payment thereof to the minister as aforesaid: *Provided*, That no such interest shall be paid or payable on such principal sum unless interest thereon was payable by the bank paying the same to the minister.

3. Upon payment to the minister as herein provided, the bank and its assets shall be held to be discharged from further liability for the amounts so paid. (53 V., c. 31, s. 88.)

116. Upon the winding up of a bank in insolvency or under any general winding-up act, or otherwise, the assignees, liquidators, directors, or other officials in charge of such winding up, shall, before the final distribution of the assets, or within three years from the commencement of the suspension of payment by the bank, whichever shall first happen, pay over to the minister a sum, out of the assets of the bank, equal to the amount then outstanding of the notes intended for circulation issued by the bank.

2. Upon such payment being made, the bank and its assets shall be relieved from all further liability in respect of such outstanding notes.

3. The sum so paid shall be held by the minister and applied for the purpose of redeeming, whenever presented, such outstanding notes, without interest. (53 V., c. 31, s. 88.)

THE CURATOR.

117. The association shall, if a bank suspends payment in specie or Dominion notes of any of its liabilities as they accrue, forthwith appoint a curator to supervise the affairs of such bank.

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2. The association may at any time remove the curator, and may appoint another person to act in his stead. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 24.)

118. The appointment of the curator shall be made in the manner provided for in the by-law of the association made in that behalf as hereinafter provided.

2. If there is no such by-law the appointment shall be made in writing by the president of the association, or by the person acting as president. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 25.)

119. The curator shall assume supervision of the affairs of the bank, and of all necessary arrangements for the payment of the notes of the bank issued for circulation, and, at the time of his appointment, outstanding and in circulation.

2. The curator shall generally have all powers and shall take all steps and do all things necessary or expedient to protect the rights and interests of the creditors and shareholders of the bank, and to conserve and ensure the proper disposition, according to law, of the assets of the bank; and, for the purposes of this section, he shall have free and full access to all books, accounts, documents, and papers of the bank.

3. The curator shall continue to supervise the affairs of the bank until he is removed from office, or until the bank resumes business, or until a liquidator is duly appointed to wind up the business of the bank. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 26.)

120. The president, vice-president, directors, general manager, managers, clerks, and officers of the bank shall give and afford to the curator all such information and assistance as he requires in the discharge of his duties. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 27.)

121. No by-law, regulation, resolution, or act, touching the affairs or management of the bank, passed, made, or done by the directors during the time the curator is in charge of the bank, shall be of any force or effect until

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approved in writing by the curator. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 27.)

122. The curator shall make all returns and reports, and shall give all information to the minister, touching the affairs of the bank, that the minister requires of him. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 28.)

123. The remuneration of the curator for his services, and his expenses and disbursements in connection with the discharge of his duties, shall be fixed and determined by the association, and shall be paid out of the assets of the bank, and, in case of the winding up of the bank, shall rank on the estate equally with the remuneration of the liquidator. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 29.)

BY-LAWS OF THE CANADIAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION.

124. The association may, at any meeting thereof, with the approval of two-thirds in number of the banks represented at such meeting, if the banks so approving have at least two-thirds in par value of the paid-up capital of the banks so represented, make by-laws, rules and regulations respecting, (a) all matters relating to the appointment or removal of the curator, and his powers and duties; (b) the supervision of the making of the notes of the banks which are intended for circulation, and the delivery thereof to the banks; (c) the inspection of the disposition made by the banks of such notes; (d) the destruction of notes of the banks; and (e) the imposition of penalties for the breach or nonobservance of any by-law, rule or regulation made by virtue of this section.

2. No such by-law, rule or regulation, and no amendment or repeal thereof, shall be of any force or effect until approved by the treasury board.

3. Before any such by-law, rule or regulation, or any amendment or repeal thereof is so approved, the treasury board shall submit it to every bank which is not a member of the association, and give to each such bank an oppor-

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tunity of being heard before the treasury board with respect thereto.

4. The association shall have all powers necessary to carry out, or to enforce the carrying out, of any by-law, rule or regulation, or any amendment thereof, so approved by the treasury board. (63-64 V., c. 26, ss. 30 and 31.)

INSOLVENCY.

125. In the event of the property and assets of the bank being insufficient to pay its debts and liabilities, each shareholder of the bank shall be liable for the deficiency, to an amount equal to the par value of the shares held by him, in addition to any amount not paid up on such shares. (53 V., c. 31, s. 89.)

126. The liability of the bank, under any law, custom or agreement to repay moneys deposited with it and interest, if any, and to pay dividends declared and payable on its capital stock, shall continue, notwithstanding any statute of limitations, or any enactment or law relating to prescription.

2. This section applies to moneys heretofore or hereafter deposited, and to dividends heretofore or hereafter declared. (53 V., c. 31, s. 90.)

127. Any suspension by the bank of payment of any of its liabilities as they accrue, in specie or Dominion notes, shall, if it continues for ninety days consecutively, or at intervals within twelve consecutive months, constitute the bank insolvent, and work a forfeiture of its charter or act of incorporation, so far as regards all further banking operations.

2. The charter or act of incorporation of the bank shall, in such case, remain in force only for the purpose of enabling the directors, or other lawful authority, to make and enforce the calls mentioned in the next following section of this act, and to wind up the business of the bank. (53 V., c. 31, s. 91.)

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128. If any suspension of payment in full, in specie or Dominion notes, of all or any of the notes or other liabilities of the bank, continues for three months after the expiration of the time which, under the last preceding section, would constitute the bank insolvent, and if no proceedings are taken under any act for the winding up of the bank, the directors shall make calls on the shareholders thereof, to the amount they deem necessary to pay all the debts and liabilities of the bank, without waiting for the collection of any debts due to the bank or the sale of any of its assets or property.

2. Such calls shall be made at intervals of thirty days.

3. Such calls shall be made upon notice to be given at least thirty days prior to the day on which any such call shall be payable.

4. Any number of such calls may be made by one resolution.

5. No such call shall exceed twenty per centum on each share.

6. Payment of such calls may be enforced in like manner as payment of calls on unpaid stock may be enforced.

7. The first of such calls may be made within ten days after the expiration of the said three months.

8. In the event of proceedings being taken, under any act, for the winding up of the bank in consequence of the insolvency of the bank, the said calls shall be made in the manner prescribed for the making of such calls in such act.

9. Any failure on the part of any shareholder liable to any such call to pay the same when due, shall work a forfeiture by such shareholder of all claim in or to any part of the assets of the bank: *Provided*, That such call, and any further call thereafter, shall nevertheless be recoverable from him as if no such forfeiture had been incurred. (53 V., c. 31, ss. 92, 93, and 94.)

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129. Nothing contained in the four sections last preceding shall be construed to alter or diminish the additional liabilities of the directors as herein mentioned and declared. (53 V., c. 31, s. 95.)

130. (a) Persons who, having been shareholders of the bank, have only transferred their shares, or any of them, to others, or registered the transfer thereof, within sixty days before the commencement of the suspension of payment by the bank; and, (b) Persons whose subscriptions to the stock of the bank have been cancelled, in manner hereinbefore provided, within the said period of sixty days before the commencement of the suspension of payment by the bank; shall be liable to all calls on the shares held or subscribed for by them, as if they held such shares at the time of such suspension of payment, saving their recourse against those by whom such shares were then actually held. (53 V., c. 31, s. 96.)

131. In the case of the insolvency of any bank, (a) the payment of the notes issued or re-issued by such bank, intended for circulation, and then in circulation, together with any interest paid or payable thereon as hereinbefore provided, shall be the first charge upon the assets of the bank; (b) the payment of any amount due to the government of Canada, intrust or otherwise, shall be the second charge upon such assets; (c) the payment of any amount due to the government of any of the provinces, in trust or otherwise, shall be the third charge upon such assets; and, (d) the amount of any penalties for which the bank is liable shall not form a charge upon the assets of the bank, until all other liabilities are paid. (53 V., c. 31, s. 53.)

OFFENCES AND PENALTIES.

The commencement of business.

132. Every director or provisional director of any bank and every other person, who, before the obtaining of the certificate from the treasury board, by this act required,

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permitting the bank to issue notes or commence business, issues or authorizes the issue of any note of such bank, or transacts or authorizes the transaction of any business in connection with such bank, except such as is by this act authorized to be transacted before the obtaining of such certificate, is guilty of an offence against this act. (53 V., c. 31, s. 14.)

The sale and transfer of shares.

133. Any person, whether principal, broker or agent, who wilfully sells or transfers or attempts to sell or transfer (a) any share or shares of the capital stock of any bank by a false number; or, (b) any share or shares of which the person making such sale or transfer, or in whose name or on whose behalf the same is made, is not at the time of such sale, or attempted sale, the registered owner; or, (c) any share or shares, without the assent to such sale of the registered owner thereof; is guilty of an offence against this act. (53 V., c. 31, s. 37.)

The cash reserves.

134. Every bank which at any time holds less than forty per centum of its cash reserves in Dominion notes shall incur a penalty of five hundred dollars for each such offence. (53 V., c. 31, s. 50.)

The issue and circulation of notes.

135. If the total amount of the notes of the bank in circulation at any time exceeds the amount authorized by this act the bank shall, (a) if the amount of such excess is not over one thousand dollars, incur a penalty equal to the amount of such excess; or, (b) if the amount of such excess is over one thousand dollars, and not over twenty thousand dollars, incur a penalty of one thousand dollars; or, (c) if the amount of such excess is over twenty thou-

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sand dollars, and not over one hundred thousand dollars, incur a penalty of ten thousand dollars; or, (d) if the amount of such excess is over one hundred thousand dollars, and not over two hundred thousand dollars, incur a penalty of fifty thousand dollars; or, (e) if the amount of such excess is over two hundred thousand dollars, incur a penalty of one hundred thousand dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 51.)

136. Every person, except a bank to which this act applies, who issues or reissues, makes, draws, or endorses any bill, bond, note, cheque or other instrument, intended to circulate as money, or to be used as a substitute for money, for any amount whatsoever, shall incur a penalty of four hundred dollars.

2. Such penalty shall be recoverable with costs, in any court of competent jurisdiction, by any person who sues for the same.

3. A moiety of such penalty shall belong to the person suing for the same, and the other moiety to His Majesty for the public uses of Canada.

4. If any such instrument is made for the payment of a less sum than twenty dollars, and is payable either in form or in fact to the bearer thereof, or at sight, or on demand, or at less than thirty days thereafter, or is overdue, or is in any way calculated or designed for circulation, or as a substitute for money, the intention to pass the same as money shall be presumed, unless such instrument is, (a) a cheque on some chartered bank paid by the maker directly to his immediate creditor; or, (b) a promissory note, bill of exchange, bond, or other undertaking for the payment of money made or delivered by the maker thereof to his immediate creditor, and, (c) not designed to circulate as money or as a substitute for money. (53 V., c. 31, s. 60.)

137. Every person who in any way defaces any Dominion or provincial note, or bank note, whether by writing,

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printing, drawing, or stamping thereon, or by attaching or affixing thereto, anything in the nature or form of an advertisement, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding twenty dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 61.)

138. (a) Every person who, being president, vice-president, director, general manager, manager, clerk, or other officer of the bank, issues or reissues, during any period of suspension of payment by the bank of its liabilities, any notes of the bank payable to bearer on demand, and intended for circulation, or authorizes or is concerned in any such issue or reissue; and (b) if, after any such suspension, the bank resumes business without the consent in writing of the curator, hereinbefore provided for, every person who being president, vice-president, director, general manager, manager, clerk, or other officer of the bank issues or reissues, or authorizes or is concerned in the issue or reissue of any such notes before being thereunto authorized by the treasury board; and (c) every person who accepts, receives, or takes, or authorizes or is concerned in, the acceptance, receipt, or taking of any such notes, knowing the same to have been so issued or reissued, from the bank, or from such president, vice-president, director, general manager, manager, clerk, or other officer of the bank, in payment or part payment, or as security for the payment of any amount due or owing to such person by the bank, is guilty of an indictable offence, and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding seven years, or to a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars, or to both. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 10.)

139. (a) Every person who, being the president, vice-president, director, general manager, manager, cashier, or other officer of the bank, pledges, assigns, or hypothecates, or authorizes or is concerned in the pledge, assignment, or hypothecation of the notes of the bank; and (b) every person who accepts, receives or takes, or authorizes, or is concerned in the acceptance or receipt or taking of such notes

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as a pledge, assignment, or hypothecation, shall be liable to a fine of not less than four hundred dollars and not more than two thousand dollars, or to imprisonment for not more than two years, or to both. (53 V., c. 31, s. 52.)

140. (a) Every person who, being the president, vice-president, director, general manager, manager, cashier, or other officer of a bank, with intent to defraud, issues or delivers, or authorizes or is concerned in the issue or delivery of notes of the bank intended for circulation and not then in circulation; and (b) every person who, with knowledge of such intent, accepts, receives, or takes, or authorizes, or is concerned in the acceptance, receipt, or taking of such notes, shall be guilty of an indictable offence and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding seven years, or to a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars, or to both. (53 V., c. 31, s. 52.)

Warehouse receipts, bills of lading, and other securities.

141. If any bank, to secure the payment of any bill, note, debt, or liability acquires or holds (a) any warehouse receipt or bill of lading; or (b) any instrument such as is by this act authorized to be taken by the bank to secure money lent (i) to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in products of agriculture, the forest, quarry and mine, or the sea, lakes, and rivers, or to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in live or dead stock, and the products thereof, upon the security of such products, or of such live or dead stock, or the products thereof; or (ii) to any person engaged in business as a wholesale manufacturer of any goods, wares, and merchandise, upon the security of the goods, wares, and merchandise manufactured by such person, or procured for such manufacture, such bank shall, unless (a) such bill, note, debt, or liability is negotiated or contracted at the time of the acquisition by the bank of such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security; or (b) such bill, note, debt, or liability is nego-

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tiated or contracted upon the written promise or agreement that such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security would be given to the bank; or (c) the acquisition or holding by the bank of such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security is otherwise authorized by this act, incur a penalty not exceeding five hundred dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 79.)

142. If any debt or liability to the bank is secured by (a) any warehouse receipt or bill of lading; or (b) any other security such as is mentioned in the last preceding section, and is not paid at maturity, such bank shall, if it sells the goods, wares, and merchandise or products covered by such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security, under the power of sale conferred upon it by this act, without complying with the provisions to which the exercise of such power of sale is, by this act, made subject, incur a penalty not exceeding five hundred dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 79; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 18.)

143. Every person is guilty of an indictable offence and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years who wilfully makes any false statement, (a) in any warehouse receipt or bill of lading given under the authority of this act to any bank; or (b) in any instrument given to any bank under the authority of this act, as security for any loan of money made by the bank to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in products of agriculture, the forest, quarry, and mine, or the sea, lakes, and rivers, or to any wholesale purchaser, or shipper of or dealer in live or dead stock and the products thereof, whereby any such products or stock is assigned or transferred to the bank as security for the payment of such loan; or (c) in any instrument given to any bank under the authority of this act, as security for any loan of money made by the bank to any person engaged in business as a wholesale manufacturer of any goods, wares, and merchandise, whereby any of the goods, wares, and merchandise manufactured by him, or

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procured for such manufacture, are transferred or assigned to the bank as security for the payment of such loan. (53 V., c. 31, s. 75.)

144. Every person who, having possession or control of any goods, wares, and merchandise covered by any warehouse receipt or bill of lading, or by any such security as in the last preceding section mentioned, and having knowledge of such receipt, bill of lading, or security, without the consent of the bank in writing, and before the advance, bill, note, debt, or liability thereby secured has been fully paid, (a) wilfully alienates or parts with any such goods, wares, or merchandise; or (b) wilfully withholds from the bank possession of any such goods, wares, and merchandise, upon demand, after default in payment of such advance, bill, note, debt, or liability, is guilty of an indictable offence and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years. (53 V., c. 31, s. 75; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 18.)

145. (a) If any bank having, by virtue of the provisions of this act, a privileged lien for any debt or liability for any debt to the bank, on the shares of its own capital stock of the debtor or person liable, neglects to sell such shares within twelve months after such debt or liability has accrued and become payable; or (b) if any such bank sells any such shares without giving notice to the holder thereof of the intention of the bank to sell the same, by mailing such notice in the post-office, post paid, to the last known address of such holder, at least thirty days prior to such sale, such bank shall incur, for each such offence, a penalty not exceeding five hundred dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 79.)

Prohibited business.

146. If any bank, except as authorized by this act, either directly or indirectly, (a) deals in the buying or selling or bartering of goods, wares, and merchandise, or engages or is engaged in any trade or business whatsoever; or,

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(b) purchases, deals in, or lends money or makes advances upon the security or pledge of any share of its own capital stock, or of the capital stock of any bank; or (c) lends money or makes advances upon the security, mortgage, or hypothecation of any lands, tenements, or immovable property, or of any ships or other vessels, or upon the security of any goods, wares, and merchandise, such bank shall incur a penalty not exceeding five hundred dollars. (53 V., c. 31, s. 79.)

Returns.

147. Every bank which neglects to make up and send to the minister, within the first fifteen days of any month, any monthly return by this act required to be made up and sent in within the said fifteen days, exhibiting the condition of the bank on the last juridical day of the month last preceding, and signed in the manner and by the persons by this act required, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for each and every day, after the expiration of such time, during which the bank neglects to make and send in such return. (53 V., c. 31, s. 85.)

148. Every bank which neglects to make and send to the minister, within thirty days from the date of the demand therefor by the minister, or, if such time is extended by the minister, within such extended time, not exceeding thirty days, as the minister may allow, any special return, signed in the manner and by the persons by this act required, which, under the provisions of this act, the minister may, for the purpose of affording a full and complete knowledge of the condition of the bank, call for, shall incur a penalty of five hundred dollars for each and every day during which such neglect continues. (53 V., c. 31, s. 86.)

149. Every bank which neglects to transmit or deliver to the minister, within twenty days after the close of any calendar year, a return, signed in the manner and by the persons and setting forth the particulars by this act re-

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quired in that behalf, of all drafts or bills of exchange issued by the bank to any person and remaining unpaid for more than five years prior to the date of such return, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for each and every day during which such neglect continues. (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 21.)

150. Every bank which neglects to transmit or deliver to the minister, within twenty days after the close of any calendar year, a certified list, as by this act required, showing (a) the names of the shareholders of the bank on the last day of such calendar year, with their additions and residences; (b) the number of shares then held by such shareholders respectively; and, (c) the value at par of such shares, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for each and every day during which such neglect continues. (53 V., c. 31, s. 87.)

151. Every bank which neglects to transmit or deliver to the minister, within twenty days after the close of any calendar year, a return, signed in the manner and by the persons by this act required, of all dividends which have remained unpaid for more than five years, and also of all amounts or balances in respect of which no transactions have taken place, or upon which no interest has been paid, during the five years prior to the date of such return, and setting forth such further particulars as are by this act required in that behalf, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for each and every day during which such neglect continues.

2. The said term of five years shall, in case of moneys deposited for a fixed period, be reckoned from the date of the termination of such fixed period. (53 V., c. 31, s. 88.)

152. If any return or list, mentioned in either of the last five preceding sections, is transmitted by post, the date appearing, by the post-office stamp or mark upon the envelope or wrapper inclosing the return or list received

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by the minister, as the date of deposit in the post-office of the place at which the chief office of the bank was situated, shall be taken *prima facie*, for the purpose of any of the said sections, to be the day upon which such return or list was transmitted to the minister. (53 V., c. 31, ss. 85 and 86; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 22.)

153. The making of any wilfully false or deceptive statement in any account, statement, return, report, or other document respecting the affairs of the bank is an indictable offence punishable, unless a greater punishment is in any case by law prescribed therefor, by imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years.

2. Every president, vice-president, director, auditor, manager, cashier, or other officer of the bank, who (a) prepares, signs, approves, or concurs in any such account, statement, return, report, or document containing such false or deceptive statement; or, (b) uses the same with intent to deceive or mislead any person, shall be held to have wilfully made such false or deceptive statement, and shall further be responsible for all damages sustained by any person in consequence thereof. (53 V., c. 31, s. 99.)

Calls in the case of suspension of payment.

154. (a) If any suspension of payment in full, in specie or Dominion notes, of all or any of the notes or other liabilities of the bank continues for three months after the expiration of the time which, under the provisions of this act, would constitute the bank insolvent; and, (b) if no proceedings are taken under any act for the winding up of the bank; and, (c) if any director of the bank refuses to make or enforce, or to concur in the making or enforcing of any call on the shareholders of the bank, to any amount which the directors deem necessary to pay all the debts and liabilities of the bank, such director shall be guilty of an indictable offence, and liable (a) to imprisonment for

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any term not exceeding two years; and, (b) personally for any damages suffered by any such default. (53 V., c. 31, s. 92.)

Undue preference to the bank's creditors.

155. Every person who, being the president, vice-president, director, manager, cashier, or other officer of the bank, wilfully gives or concurs in giving to any creditor of the bank any fraudulent, undue or unfair preference over other creditors, by giving security to such creditor, or by changing the nature of his claim, or otherwise howsoever, is guilty of an indictable offence, and liable (a) to imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years; and, (b) for all damages sustained by any person in consequence of such preference. (53 V., c. 31, s. 97.)

The using of the title "Bank," etc.

156. Every person assuming or using the title of "bank," "banking company," "banking house," "banking association," or "banking institution," without being authorized so to do by this act, or by some other act in force in that behalf, is guilty of an offence against this act. (53 V., c. 31, s. 100.)

Penalty for offence against this act.

157. Every person committing an offence, declared to be an offence against this act, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or to imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years, or to both, in the discretion of the court before which the conviction is had. (53 V., c. 31, s. 101.)

PROCEDURE.

158. The amount of all penalties imposed upon a bank for any violation of this act shall be recoverable and enforceable, with costs, at the suit of His Majesty instituted by the attorney-general of Canada, or by the minister.

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2. Such penalties shall belong to the Crown for the public uses of Canada: *Provided*, That the governor in council, on the report of the treasury board, may direct that any portion of any penalty be remitted, or paid to any person, or applied in any manner deemed best adapted to attain the objects of this act, and to secure the due administration thereof. (53 V., c. 31, s. 98.)

SCHEDULE A.

1. The Bank of Montreal.
2. The Bank of New Brunswick.
3. The Quebec Bank.
4. The Bank of Nova Scotia.
5. The St. Stephen's Bank.
6. The Bank of Toronto.
7. The Molsons Bank.
8. The Eastern Townships Bank.
9. The Union Bank of Halifax.
10. The Ontario Bank.
11. La Banque Nationale.
12. The Merchants Bank of Canada.
13. La Banque Provinciale du Canada.
14. The People's Bank of New Brunswick.
15. The Union Bank of Canada.
16. The Canadian Bank of Commerce.
17. The Royal Bank of Canada.
18. The Dominion Bank.
19. The Bank of Hamilton.
20. The Standard Bank of Canada.
21. La Banque de St. Jean.
22. La Banque d'Hochelaga.
23. La Banque de St. Hyacinthe.
24. The Bank of Ottawa.
25. The Imperial Bank of Canada.

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26. The Western Bank of Canada.
 27. The Traders' Bank of Canada.
 28. The Sovereign Bank of Canada.
 29. The Metropolitan Bank.
 30. The Crown Bank of Canada.
 31. The Home Bank of Canada.
 32. The Northern Bank.
 33. The Sterling Bank of Canada.
 34. The United Empire Bank of Canada.
- (63-64 V., c. 26, s. 4, and sch. A.)

SCHEDULE B.

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE BANK.

Whereas the persons hereinafter named have, by their petition, prayed that an act be passed for the purpose of establishing a bank in, and it is expedient to grant the prayer of the said petition:

Therefore His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

1. The persons hereinafter named, together with such others as become shareholders in the corporation by this act created, are hereby constituted a corporation by the name of, hereinafter called the bank.

2. The capital stock of the bank shall be dollars.

3. The chief office of the bank shall be at

4. shall be the provisional directors of the bank.

5. This act shall, subject to the provisions of section sixteen of the bank act, remain in force until the first day of July, in the year one thousand nine hundred and eleven. (53 V., c. 31, sch. B.; 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 45.)

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SCHEDULE C.

In consideration of an advance of dollars made by the Bank to A. B., for which the said bank holds the following bills or notes: (*describe the bills or notes, if any*), [*or, in consideration of the discounting of the following bills or notes by the Bank for A. B.: (describe the bills or notes),*] the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned below are hereby assigned to the said bank as security for the payment on or before the day of of the said advance, together with interest thereon at the rate of per centum per annum from the day of (*or, of the said bills or notes, or renewals thereof, or substitutions therefor, and interest thereon, or as the case may be*).

This security is given under the provisions of section eighty-eight of the bank act, and is subject to the provisions of the said act.

The said goods, wares and merchandise, are now owned by....., and are now in the possession of , and are free from any mortgage, lien, or charge thereon (*or as the case may be*), and are in (*place or places where the goods are*), and are the following (*description of goods assigned*).

Dated, etc.

(*N. B.—The bills or notes and the goods, etc., may be set out in schedules annexed.*)

(63-64 V., c. 26, s. 46 and sch. C.)

SCHEDULE D.

Return of the liabilities and assets of the ----- bank on the ---- day of -----, A. D.

Capital authorized.....\$

Capital subscribed.....

Capital paid up.....

Amount of rest or reserve fund.....

Rate per cent of last dividend declared..... per cent.

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LIABILITIES.

1. Notes in circulation	\$
2. Balance due to Dominion government, after deducting advances for credits, pay-lists, etc	
3. Balances due to provincial governments	
4. Deposits by the public, payable on demand, in Canada	
5. Deposits by the public, payable after notice or on a fixed day, in Canada	
6. Deposits elsewhere than in Canada	
7. Loans from other banks in Canada, secured, including bills re-discounted	
8. Deposits made by and balances due to other banks in Canada ..	
9. Balances due to agencies of the bank, or to other banks or agencies, in the United Kingdom	
10. Balances due to agencies of the bank, or to other banks or agencies, elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom ..	
11. Liabilities not included under foregoing heads	

\$

ASSETS.

1. Specie	\$
2. Dominion notes	
3. Deposits with Dominion government for security of note circulation	
4. Notes of and cheques on other banks	
5. Loans to other banks in Canada, secured, including bills rediscounted	
6. Deposits made with and balances due from other banks in Canada ..	
7. Balances due from agencies of the bank, or from other banks or agencies, in the United Kingdom	
8. Balances due from agencies of the bank, or from other banks or agencies, elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom ..	
9. Dominion government and provincial government securities ..	
10. Canadian municipal securities, and British, or foreign, or colonial public securities, other than Canadian	
11. Railway and other bonds, debentures, and stocks	
12. Call and short loans on stocks and bonds in Canada	
13. Call and short loans elsewhere than in Canada	
14. Current loans in Canada	
15. Current loans elsewhere than in Canada	
16. Loans to the government of Canada	
17. Loans to provincial governments	
18. Overdue debts	
19. Real estate other than bank premises	

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- 20. Mortgages on real estate sold by the bank.....
 - 21. Bank premises.....
 - 22. Other assets not included under the foregoing heads.....
- \$

Aggregate amount of loans to directors, and firms of which they are partners, \$.....

Average amount of specie held during the month, \$.....

Average amount of Dominion notes held during the month, \$.....

Greatest amount of notes in circulation at any time during the month, \$.....

I declare that the above return has been prepared under my directions and is correct according to the books of the bank.

E. F., *Chief Accountant.*

We declare that the foregoing return is made up from the books of the bank, and that to the best of our knowledge and belief it is correct, and shows truly and clearly the financial position of the bank; and we further declare that the bank has never, at any time during the period to which the said return relates, held less than forty per centum of its cash reserves in Dominion notes.

(Place).....this.....day of.....

A. B., *President.*

C. D., *General Manager.*

(63-64 V., c. 26, s. 47 and sch. D.)

APPENDIX III.

AMENDING LEGISLATION OF 1908.

An act to amend the bank act.

(7-8 Edw. VII, chap. 7.)

[Assented to 20th July, 1908.]

His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

1. Section 61 of the bank act, chapter 29 of the Revised Statutes, 1906, is repealed, and the following is substituted therefor:

“61. The bank may issue and re-issue its notes payable to bearer on demand and intended for circulation: *Provided*, That (a) the bank shall not, during any period of suspension of payment of its liabilities, issue or re-issue any of its notes; and (b), if, after any such suspension, the bank resumes business without the consent in writing of the curator, hereinafter provided for, it shall not issue or re-issue any of its notes until authorized by the treasury board so to do.

“2. No such note shall be for a sum less than five dollars or for any sum which is not a multiple of five dollars.

“3. The total amount of such notes in circulation at any time shall not exceed the amount of the unimpaired paid-up capital of the bank: *Provided*, That during the usual season of moving the crops—that is to say, from and including the first day of October in any year to and including the thirty-first day of January next ensuing—in addition to the said amount of notes hereinbefore authorized to be issued for circulation, the bank may issue its notes, to an

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amount not exceeding fifteen per centum of the combined unimpaired paid-up capital and reserve or rest fund of the bank as stated in the statutory monthly return made by the bank to the minister for the month immediately preceding that in which the additional amount is issued.

“4. Whenever, under the authority of the proviso to the next preceding subsection of this section, the issue of an additional amount of notes of the bank has been made, the general manager, or other chief executive officer of the bank for the time being, shall forthwith give notice thereof by registered letter addressed to the minister and to the president of the Canadian Bankers' Association.

“5. While its notes in circulation are in excess of the amount of its unimpaired paid-up capital, the bank shall pay interest to the minister at such rate, not exceeding five per centum per annum, as is fixed by the governor in council, on the amount of its notes in circulation in excess from day to day; and the interest so paid shall form part of the consolidated revenue fund of Canada.

“6. A return shall be made and sent by the bank to the minister showing the amount of its notes in circulation for each juridical day during any month in which any amount of notes in excess as aforesaid has been issued or is outstanding.

“7. Such return shall be made up and sent within the first fifteen days of the month next after that in which any such amount in excess has been issued or is outstanding, and shall be accompanied by declarations in the form prescribed in Schedule D to this act, and shall be signed by the persons required to sign the monthly returns made under section 112 of this act.

“8. The provisions of section 153 of this act shall apply to the return mentioned in the next preceding subsection.

“9. Notwithstanding anything in this section hereinbefore contained, the total amount of such notes of the Bank of British North America in circulation at any time shall

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not exceed seventy-five per centum of the unimpaired paid-up capital of the bank: *Provided, That—*

“(a) The bank may issue its notes in excess of the said seventy-five per centum upon depositing with the minister, in respect of the excess, in cash or bonds of the Dominion of Canada, an amount equal to the excess; and the cash or bonds so deposited shall, in the event of the suspension of the bank, be available by the minister for the redemption of the notes issued in excess as aforesaid; and

“(b) The total amount of such notes of the bank in circulation at any time shall not, except as in paragraph (c) of this subsection authorized, exceed its unimpaired paid-up capital;

“(c) The bank may, during the said season of moving of crops, in addition to the circulation of its notes hereinbefore in this subsection authorized, issue its notes to an amount not exceeding ten per centum of the combined unimpaired paid-up capital and reserve or rest fund of the bank as stated in the statutory return made by the bank for the month immediately preceding that in which the said additional amount is issued; and the said additional amount shall be otherwise subject to all the provisions of this section respecting circulation in addition to or in excess of the unimpaired paid-up capital permitted to other banks.

“10. All notes issued or re-issued by any bank, and now in circulation, which are for a sum less than five dollars, or for a sum which is not a multiple of five dollars, shall be called in and cancelled as soon as practicable.”

2. The following section is hereby inserted immediately after section 147 of the said act:

“147a. Every bank which neglects to make and send to the minister within the first fifteen days of the month next thereafter a return showing the amount of its notes in circulation for each juridical day during any month in the usual season of moving the crops—that is to say, from and

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including the first day of October in any year to and including the thirty-first day of January next ensuing—in which any amount of its notes in excess of the amount of the unimpaired paid-up capital of the bank has been issued or is outstanding, and signed in the manner and by the persons by this act required, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for each and every day, after the expiration of such time, during which the bank neglects to make and send in such return.”

1	Number of banks reporting to the government	
2	Capital authorized by act	\$38, 46
3	Capital subscribed	
4	Capital paid up	31, 342
5	Promissory notes in circulation not bearing interest	8, 851
6	Cash deposits not bearing interest	14, 686
7	Cash deposits bearing interest	15, 965
8	Amount of reserve or rest fund	
9	Notes in circulation	
10	Dominion government deposits payable on demand	
11	Dominion government deposits payable after notice or on a fixed day	
12	Deposits held as security for execution of Dominion government contracts and for insurance companies.	
13	Provincial government deposits payable on demand	
14	Provincial government deposits payable after notice or on a fixed day	
15	Other deposits payable on demand	
16	Other deposits payable after notice or on a fixed day	
17	Loans from, or deposits made by, other banks in Canada, secured	
18	Loans from, or deposits made by, other banks in Canada, unsecured	
19	Balances due to agencies of the bank or other banks or agencies in foreign countries	
20	Balances due to agencies of the bank or other banks or agencies in the United Kingdom	
21	Balances due to other banks in Canada in daily exchanges	3, 545
22	Balances due to Dominion government after deducting advances for credits, pay lists, etc.	
23	Balances due to provincial governments	
24	Deposits by the public payable on demand in Canada	
25	Deposits by the public payable after notice or on a fixed day in Canada	
26	Deposits payable on demand or after notice or on a fixed day made by other banks in Canada	
27	Deposits elsewhere than in Canada	
28	Loans from other banks in Canada, secured, including bills rediscounted	
29	Deposits made by, and balances due to, other banks in Canada	
30	Liabilities not included under foregoing heads	
31	Total liabilities	43, 952, 1

TABLE SHOWING GRAND TOTALS OF THE ASSETS OF THE CHARTERED BANKS OF CANADA AS REPORTED TO THE GOVERNMENT ON DECEMBER 31, 1897-1908

1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2104	2105	2106	2107	2108	2109	2110	2111	2112	2113	2114	2115	2116	2117	2118	2119	2120	2121	2122	2123	2124	2125	2126	2127	2128	2129	2130	2131	2132	2133	2134	2135	2136	2137	2138	2139	2140	2141	2142	2143	2144	2145	2146	2147	2148	2149	2150	2151	2152	2153	2154	2155	2156	2157	2158	2159	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174	2175	2176	2177	2178	2179	2180	2181	2182	2183	2184	2185	2186	2187	2188	2189	2190	2191	2192	2193	2194	2195	2196	2197	2198	2199	2200	2201	2202	2203	2204	2205	2206	2207	2208	2209	2210	2211	2212	2213	2214	2215	2216	2217	2218	2219	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224	2225	2226	2227	2228	2229	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274	2275	2276	2277	2278	2279	2280	2281	2282	2283	2284	2285	2286	2287	2288	2289	2290	2291	2292	2293	2294	2295	2296	2297	2298	2299	2300	2301	2302	2303	2304	2305	2306	2307	2308	2309	2310	2311	2312	2313	2314	2315	2316	2317	2318	2319	2320	2321	2322	2323	2324	2325	2326	2327	2328	2329	2330	2331	2332	2333	2334	2335	2336	2337	2338	2339	2340	2341	2342	2343	2344	2345	2346	2347	2348	2349	2350	2351	2352	2353	2354	2355	2356	2357	2358	2359	2360	2361	2362	2363	2364	2365	2366	2367	2368	2369	2370	2371	2372	2373	2374	2375	2376	2377	2378	2379	2380	2381	2382	2383	2384	2385	2386	2387	2388	2389	2390	2391	2392	2393	2394	2395	2396	2397	2398	2399	2400	2401	2402	2403	2404	2405	2406	2407	2408	2409	2410	2411	2412	2413	2414	2415	2416	2417	2418	2419	2420	2421	2422	2423	2424	2425	2426	2427	2428	2429	2430	2431	2432	2433	2434	2435	2436	2437	2438	2439	2440	2441	2442	2443	2444	2445	2446	2447	2448	2449	2450	2451	2452	2453	2454	2455	2456	2457	2458	2459	2460	2461	2462	2463	2464	2465	2466	2467	2468	2469	2470	2471	2472	2473	2474	2475	2476	2477	2478	2479	2480	2481	2482	2483	2484	2485	2486	2487	2488	2489	2490	2491	2492	2493	2494	2495	2496	2497	2498	2499	2500	2501	2502	2503	2504	2505	2506	2507	2508	2509	2510	2511	2512	2513	2514	2515	2516	2517	2518	2519	2520	2521	2522	2523	2524	2525	2526	2527	2528	2529	2530	2531	2532	2533	2534	2535	2536	2537	2538	2539	2540	2541	2542	2543	2544	2545	2546	2547	2548	2549	2550	2551	2552	2553	2554	2555	2556	2557	2558	2559	2560	2561	2562	2563	2564	2565	2566	2567	2568	2569	2570	2571	2572	2573	2574	2575	2576	2577	2578	2579	2580	2581	2582	2583	2584	2585	2586	2587	2588	2589	2590	2591	2592	2593	2594	2595	2596	2597	2598	2599	2600	2601	2602	2603	2604	2605	2606	2607	2608	2609	2610	2611	2612	2613	2614	2615	2616	2617	2618	2619	2620	2621	2622	2623	2624	2625	2626	2627	2628	2629	2630	2631	2632	2633	2634	2635	2636	2637	2638	2639	2640	2641	2642	2643	2644	2645	2646	2647	2648	2649	2650	2651	2652	2653	2654	2655	2656	2657	2658	2659	2660	2661	2662	2663	2664	2665	2666	2667	2668	2669	2670	2671	2672	2673	2674	2675	2676	2677	2678	2679	2680	2681	2682	2683	2684	2685	2686	2687	2688	2689	2690	2691	2692	2693	2694	2695	2696	2697	2698	2699	2700	2701	2702	2703	2704	2705	2706	2707	2708	2709	2710	2711	2712	2713	2714	2715	2716	2717	2718	2719	2720	2721	2722	2723	2724	2725	2726	2727	2728	2729	2730	2731	2732	2733	2734	2735	2736	2737	2738	2739	2740	2741	2742	2743	2744	2745	2746	2747	2748	2749	2750	2751	2752	2753	2754	2755	2756	2757	2758	2759	2760	2761	2762	2763	2764	2765	2766	2767	2768	2769	2770	2771	2772	2773	2774	2775	2776	2777	2778	2779	2780	2781	2782	2783	2784	2785	2786	2787	2788	2789	2790	2791	2792	2793	2794	2795	2796	2797	2798	2799	2800	2801	2802	2803	2804	2805	2806	2807	2808	2809	2810	2811	2812	2813	2814	2815	2816	2817	2818	2819	2820	2821	2822	2823	2824	2825	2826	2827	2828	2829	2830	2831	2832	2833	2834	2835	2836	2837	2838	2839	2840	2841	2842	2843	2844	2845	2846	2847	2848	2849	2850	2851	2852	2853	2854	2855	2856	2857	2858	2859	2860	2861	2862	2863	2864	2865	2866	2867	2868	2869	2870	2871	2872	2873	2874	2875	2876	2877	2878	2879	2880	2881	2882	2883	2884	2885	2886	2887	2888	2889	2890	2891	2892	2893	2894	2895	2896	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APPENDIX V.

CANADIAN BANK STATISTICS 1889-1908 AS OF DECEMBER 31, 1889-1908.^a

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	1889	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908
1 Number of banks	36	38	38	39	39	39	38	38	38	38	38	36	34	35	35	34	34	35	35	33
2 Number of branches	402	426	408	470	502	513	530	533	555	622	663	708	750	904	1,049	1,145	1,454	1,745	1,886	1,927
3 Number of inhabitants to each branch	11,770	1,296	12,327	10,202	9,842	9,740	9,525	9,572	9,290	8,370	7,939	7,510	7,101	6,001	5,223	4,892	3,732	3,079	2,932	3
4 Subscribed capital	\$62,378,499	\$61,254,742	\$62,074,952	\$61,100,043	\$63,170,064	\$62,510,552	\$61,013,752	\$62,511,752	\$61,050,148	\$64,024,448	\$64,910,848	\$68,475,385	\$68,590,166	\$73,188,806	\$79,102,284	\$80,008,320	\$80,052,251	\$87,009,104	\$98,048,841	\$97,089,591
5 Paid-up capital	\$60,289,310	\$60,057,145	\$61,299,105	\$61,048,115	\$62,099,244	\$61,068,219	\$62,190,391	\$61,781,384	\$62,289,326	\$61,241,531	\$61,584,072	\$62,587,111	\$67,521,111	\$72,235,440	\$78,504,210	\$80,055,591	\$85,294,210	\$93,539,015	\$95,095,482	\$96,167,073
6 Surplus (rest)	\$30,371,332	\$21,940,409	\$23,006,827	\$24,080,615	\$26,459,815	\$27,470,026	\$27,005,799	\$26,070,799	\$27,515,999	\$27,955,807	\$29,907,724	\$34,501,149	\$37,504,708	\$44,517,081	\$50,598,511	\$54,071,630	\$49,808,397	\$66,258,007	\$70,001,232	\$71,427,010
7 Total of paid-up capital and surplus	\$80,661,342	\$81,997,664	\$84,960,112	\$85,028,120	\$88,549,058	\$88,153,745	\$88,962,190	\$88,402,153	\$89,805,325	\$91,197,140	\$94,551,740	\$102,588,406	\$106,094,874	\$117,743,121	\$128,602,791	\$134,127,252	\$135,172,007	\$163,767,022	\$168,090,714	\$168,516,601
8 Reserve liabilities of shareholders	\$12,088,689	\$11,197,497	\$11,475,047	\$11,231,178	\$11,071,411	\$10,826,833	\$10,731,301	\$10,782,397	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833	\$10,826,833
9 Deposits	\$133,977,211	\$139,703,053	\$158,091,131	\$172,018,078	\$170,860,500	\$189,704,817	\$194,313,857	\$202,098,751	\$229,389,055	\$254,065,889	\$289,421,027	\$325,825,923	\$374,782,249	\$410,928,229	\$442,173,398	\$504,883,685	\$507,540,794	\$606,517,517	\$612,001,124	\$722,709,150
10 Cash on hand	\$15,085,475	\$16,129,270	\$15,882,351	\$16,101,038	\$20,975,023	\$21,227,881	\$24,202,379	\$24,819,000	\$25,994,071	\$26,960,241	\$27,494,943	\$31,558,509	\$32,070,731	\$37,522,810	\$42,642,306	\$50,054,512	\$57,565,105	\$68,078,964	\$75,083,114	\$93,523,514
11 Per cent of cash to deposit liabilities	11.26	11.06	10.01	10.75	11.86	12.24	12.45	11.97	11.33	10.61	9.81	9.69	8.88	9.02	10.04	11.10	10.10	11.30	12.89	11
12 Money on call or short notice	\$13,510,388	\$13,440,019	\$14,401,695	\$19,987,945	\$14,230,629	\$17,791,938	\$17,089,307	\$14,030,902	\$19,859,822	\$20,532,040	\$17,455,445	\$21,210,207	\$22,915,992	\$25,089,944	\$24,021,090	\$27,731,419	\$110,714,948	\$111,409,905	\$88,010,341	\$140,964,171
13 Net foreign balances	\$13,555,509	\$13,604,304	\$21,100,199	\$18,476,104	\$17,450,098	\$24,000,817	\$21,527,014	\$21,152,413	\$18,070,826	\$12,509,121	\$29,190,354	\$12,209,689	\$11,443,013	\$15,049,181	\$14,922,281	\$21,765,550	\$12,375,900	\$13,431,040	\$7,311,334	\$49,592,073
14 Per cent net foreign balances to deposit liabilities	10.11	9.37	11.60	10.40	9.87	11.02	11.05	11.06	10.68	10.44	10.48	10.75	10.82	11.37	11.10	10.10	10.10	10.10	10.10	10
15 Per cent call loans to deposit liabilities	9.09	9.02	9.07	11.24	3.05	9.36	8.79	6.94	8.06	10.33	11.57	18.79	21.32	22.87	10.74	10.38	10.50	17.40	13.92	29.40
16 Notes outstanding	\$3,577,700	\$45,000,274	\$3,004,129	\$10,194,023	\$34,418,910	\$37,375,020	\$32,505,179	\$33,095,784	\$27,995,121	\$40,258,181	\$45,999,754	\$50,750,240	\$54,172,288	\$60,574,144	\$62,519,407	\$64,507,174	\$69,981,574	\$78,410,780	\$77,504,308	\$73,058,001
17 Investments and securities	\$8,153,287	\$8,004,437	\$14,125,292	\$18,180,351	\$19,805,919	\$21,407,237	\$23,407,237	\$25,295,204	\$15,474,299	\$39,494,150	\$16,150,807	\$50,249,908	\$50,290,807	\$61,261,200	\$63,591,671	\$65,842,780	\$68,995,466	\$72,308,600	\$71,089,907	\$74,317,111
18 Discounts, loans, and advances	\$170,250,691	\$185,860,490	\$187,202,022	\$200,079,394	\$202,661,210	\$197,290,337	\$202,816,571	\$211,194,469	\$207,741,420	\$212,095,464	\$209,016,611	\$208,864,100	\$175,712,849	\$361,214,445	\$405,744,494	\$414,568,550	\$411,101,005	\$480,518,885	\$384,807,285	\$446,070,000
19 Per cent of capital and rest paid to other liabilities	40.08	45.85	42.60	19.28	40.50	38.94	38.20	36.94	32.97	30.32	27.84	25.90	23.47	23.48	24.50	22.81	21.01	22.44	20.82	20
20 Average per cent of dividend	7.50	7.52	7.70	7.74	7.71	7.65	7.48	7.37	7.40	7.37	7.01	7.39	7.36	7.36	7.36	7.36	7.36	7.36	7.36	7.36
21 Average per cent of dividend to total of capital paid up and rest	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04	5.04
22 Overdue debts	\$1,747,008	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191	\$1,747,191

^a Compiled from the "Report of the Chartered Banks of the Dominion of Canada made to the Minister of Finance," published as supplement to the *Canada Gazette* 1890-1909.^b This item shows only the difference between capital subscribed and capital paid up. There rests upon the shareholders an additional liability, in case of the failure of the bank in which they own shares, equal to the amount of the subscribed stock.

APPENDIX VI.

TABLE SHOWING THE TOTAL CIRCULATION, BY MONTHS, 1868-1908, INCLUSIVE, OF THE CHARTERED BANKS OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

*Compiled from the "Report of the Chartered Bank of the Dominion of Canada to the Minister of Finance" published as supplement to the *Canada Gazette* 1918, p. 158, Ottawa.

APPENDIX VII.

BY-LAWS OF THE CANADIAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION.

[A corporation created by special act of the Parliament of Canada, 63 and 64 Vict., C. 93 (1900).]

The following by-laws are hereby enacted as by-laws of the Canadian Bankers' Association:

1. The annual general meetings of the association shall be held on the second Thursday of the month of November in each year, at such hour and place as may be decided upon by the executive council of the association from time to time. Special general meetings of the association may be called at any time by the said executive council, and shall be called by the president or secretary-treasurer on the written requisition of at least 5 members of the association.

The requisition (if any) for and the notice calling any special general meeting shall specify therein the general nature of the business to be considered or transacted thereat. Special general meetings shall be held at such time, hour, and place as shall be mentioned in the notice calling the same. Thirty days' notice shall be given of every general meeting of the association, whether annual or special. At any annual or special general meeting of the association 7 persons, duly representing members of the association, shall form a quorum.

At any annual general meeting of the association any business may be transacted thereat.

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At any special general meeting of the association only such business shall be transacted as is mentioned in the notice calling such special general meeting.

2. At every annual general meeting the members of the association, through their representatives or proxies, shall elect from among the chief executive officers (as defined by charter of incorporation) of members of the association, a president, 4 vice-presidents, and 14 councilors, all of whom shall hold office until the next annual general meeting, or until their successors are appointed, and may also elect honorary presidents of the association, not exceeding 3 in number, who shall also hold office until the next annual general meeting after their election.

3. The executive council of the association shall consist of the president and vice-presidents, and the said 14 councilors aforesaid, and 5 shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

The honorary presidents shall also have seats at the executive council, but shall have no vote thereat.

4. At all meetings of the association each member shall have one vote upon each matter submitted for vote. The chairman shall, in addition to any vote he may have as chief executive officer or proxy, have a casting vote in case of a tie.

Each associate shall also have one vote on all subjects except the following, on which members only shall be permitted to vote: 1, election of officers; 2, action relating to proposed legislation; 3, by-laws; 4, adding to or amending the charter; 5, all other subjects on which general action by the banks is contemplated.

5. The executive council may meet together for the dispatch of business, adjourn and otherwise regulate its meetings as it by resolution or otherwise may determine from time to time.

The secretary-treasurer shall at any time at the request of the president or any vice-president or any other member

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of the executive council convene a meeting of the council: *Provided, however,* That no business shall be transacted at a meeting called at the request of a member unless the notice calling the meeting specifies in some general terms that such business will be transacted thereat, but this provision shall not apply to any meeting called at the request of the president or any vice-president.

On all questions arising at any meeting of the executive council each member shall have one vote in addition to any vote he may have as proxy, and the chairman shall have in addition a casting vote.

6. At all meetings of the association and of the executive council the president, when present, shall be chairman, and in his absence one of the vice-presidents chosen by the members of the council then present; and in the absence of the president and vice-presidents the members of the council then present may choose some one of their number to be chairman of such meeting.

7. Any member not represented at a meeting of the association by one of the officers named in section 8 of the charter of incorporation may vote by proxy, provided such proxy is held by an associate who is an assistant general manager, or assistant cashier, inspector or manager of any bank, or any branch thereof.

Any member of the executive council, when not present at any meeting thereof, may be represented thereat by proxy, provided such proxy is held by such an associate as is before mentioned in this by-law. Proxies shall be in writing.

8. The executive council may from time to time repeal, amend, or add to any of the by-laws of the association, except those relating to dues, to the clearing house, to the curator and his duties, and to the circulation; but every such repeal, amendment, or addition shall only have force until the next annual general meeting of the association,

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and if not confirmed thereat shall thereupon cease to have force.

9. The said executive council shall have power from time to time to appoint a secretary-treasurer, who shall be an officer or ex-officer of a bank, and to remove him from office, and to fix his remuneration and the terms of his engagement.

The executive council shall also have power from time to time to appoint a solicitor or solicitors and to fix their remuneration for either general or special services, and also to engage counsel where such services may be needed.

10. Existing subsections of the voluntary association are hereby continued as, and constituted, subsections of the association as incorporated. Subsections hereby or hereinafter constituted may pass by-laws for their guidance, subject always to the provisions of the charter of incorporation and the by-laws of the association.

The bankers' section of the boards of trade in the cities of Montreal and Toronto, respectively, shall be empowered respectively to represent the association in all matters connected with legislation in the legislatures of Quebec and Ontario, respectively—it being understood that the respective sections will, as fully as possible, keep the president and the executive council of the association advised on all points that may arise in connection with the matters referred to, and will not make representations in the name of the association contrary to the views of the executive council after such views have been expressed.

11. An editing committee appointed by the association shall supervise the publication of the "Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association," and the executive council shall appoint such other officers as it may deem necessary; and shall also make such provisions and arrangements from time to time as it deems proper for lectures, discussions, competitive papers, and examinations.

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12. The dues or subscriptions payable to the association by the members thereof shall be as follows:

For banks with a paid-up capital stock of under \$1,000,000.....	\$100
For banks with a paid-up capital stock of \$1,000,000 and under \$2,000,000.....	200
For banks with a paid-up capital stock of \$2,000,000 and under \$3,000,000.....	300
For banks with a paid-up capital stock of \$3,000,000 and over.....	400

The dues or subscriptions payable to the association by the associates thereof shall be \$1 annually. Members and associates' subscriptions shall be payable on or before the 1st February and 1st July, respectively, in each year.

CIRCULATION.

13. (a) A monthly return shall be made to the president of the Canadian Bankers' Association by all banks doing business in Canada, whether members of the Canadian Bankers' Association or not, in the form hereinafter set forth; said return shall be made up and sent in within the first fifteen days of each month, and shall exhibit the condition of the bank's note circulation on the last juridical day of the month next preceding; and every such monthly return shall be signed by the chief accountant or acting chief accountant and by the president or vice-president, or by any director of the bank, and by the general manager, cashier, or other chief executive officer of the bank at its chief place of business. Every such monthly return which shows therein notes destroyed during such month shall be accompanied by a certificate or certificates in the form hereinafter set forth, covering all the notes mentioned as destroyed in such return, signed by at least three of the directors of the bank, and by the chief executive officer or some officer of the bank acting for him, stating that the notes mentioned in such certificate or certificates have been destroyed in the presence of and under the supervision of the persons respectively signing such certificate or certificates, respectively.

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FORM OF MONTHLY RETURN OF CIRCULATION ABOVE MENTIONED.

CIRCULATION STATEMENT OF THE (here state name of bank) for the month
of-----, 190--

Credit balance of bank-note accounts on last day of preceding
month (inclusive of unsigned notes)-----\$

Add notes received from printers during month, viz:

From----- \$

From----- \$

Less notes destroyed during month (as per certificate herewith) ---

Balance of bank-note accounts on last day of month-----

Less notes on hand, viz:

Signed----- \$

Unsigned----- \$

Notes in circulation on last day of month-----

Chief Accountant.

We declare that the foregoing return, to the best of our knowledge and belief, is correct, and shows truly and clearly the state and position of the note circulation of said bank during and on the last day of the period covered by such return.

----- this ----- day of -----, 19--

President.

General Manager.

FORM OF CERTIFICATE OF DESTRUCTION OF NOTES ABOVE MENTIONED.

Certificate of destruction of notes of the (here mention name of bank) accompanying monthly circulation statement for month of----- A. D.
190--

We, the undersigned, hereby certify that we have examined bank notes of this bank amounting to \$----- consisting of the following, viz: (here set out the denominations) and have burned and destroyed the same, and that the said notes so burned and destroyed by us are not included in any other certificate of destruction of notes signed by us or any of us, or to the

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best of our knowledge and belief by any other person, to accompany the present or any monthly circulation statement made or to be made to the president of the Canadian Bankers' Association.

----- this ----- day of ----- 19--

Directors of Said Bank.

General Manager.

(b) For all purposes of this by-law, the chief place of business of the Bank of British North America shall be the chief office of the said bank at the city of Montreal, in the Province of Quebec.

And in the case of the said Bank of British North America the said monthly circulation return shall be signed by the general manager's clerk, or acting general manager's clerk, and by the general manager or the acting general manager of the said bank; and the said certificate of destruction of notes shall be signed by the general manager or acting general manager, the inspector or assistant inspector, and the local manager of the Montreal branch, or the acting local manager of the Montreal branch of the said bank, instead of by the persons respectively hereinbefore directed to sign the said returns respectively.

(c) Every bank which neglects to make up and send in as aforesaid any monthly return required by this by-law within the time by this by-law limited, shall incur a penalty of \$50 for each and every day after the expiration of such time during which the bank neglects so to make up and send in such return.

(d) The executive council of the association shall have power, by resolution, at any time, to direct that an inspection shall be made of the circulation accounts of any bank by an officer or officers to be named in such resolution, and such inspection shall be made accordingly.

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(e) Some person or persons appointed from time to time by the executive council of the association shall during the year 1901 and during every year thereafter make inspection of the circulation accounts of every bank doing business in Canada, whether members of the association or not, and shall report thereon to the council, and shall thereafter inspect the circulation accounts of each bank during each year; and upon every such inspection all and every the officers of the bank whose circulation account is so inspected shall give and afford to the officer or officers making the inspection all such information and assistance as he or they may require to enable him or them fully to inspect said circulation account, and to report to the council upon the same and upon the means adopted for the destruction of notes.

(f) The amount of all penalties imposed upon a bank for any violation of this by-law shall be recoverable and enforceable with costs, at the suit of the Canadian Bankers' Association, and such penalties shall belong to the Canadian Bankers' Association for the uses of the association.

(g) The president of the Canadian Bankers' Association shall each month have printed and forwarded to the chief executive officer of every bank of Canada subject to the bank act, whether a member of the association or not, a statement of the circulation returns of all the banks in Canada for the last preceding month, as received by him.

(h) In this by-law it is declared for greater certainty that the Canadian Bankers' Association herein mentioned and referred to is the association incorporated by special act of Parliament of Canada, 63 and 64 Vict., C. 93.

CURATOR.

14. Whenever any bank suspends payment, a curator, as mentioned in section 24 of the bank act amendment act, 1900, shall be appointed to supervise the affairs of such

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bank. Such appointment shall be made in writing by the president of the association or by the person who, during a vacancy in the office of, or in the absence of, the president, may be acting as president of the association.

If a curator so appointed dies or resigns another curator may be appointed in his stead in the manner aforesaid.

The executive council may, by resolution, at any time remove a curator from office and appoint another person curator in his stead.

A curator so appointed shall have all the powers and subject to the provisions of by-law No. 15, shall perform all the duties imposed upon the curator by the said bank act amendment act; he shall also furnish all such returns and reports, and give all such information touching the affairs of the suspended bank as the president of the association or the executive council may require of him from time to time.

The remuneration of the curator for his services and his expenses and disbursements in connection with the discharge of his duties shall be fixed and determined from time to time by the executive council.

15. Whenever a bank suspends payment and a curator is accordingly appointed, the president shall also appoint a local advisory board consisting of three members, selected generally as far as possible from among the general managers, assistant general managers, cashiers, inspectors, or chief accountants, or branch managers of any bank at the place where the head office of such suspended bank is situated, and the curator shall advise from time to time with such advisory board, and it shall be his duty, before taking any important step in connection with his duties as curator, to obtain the approval of such advisory board thereto. With the sanction of such advisory board, he may employ such assistants as he may require for the full performance of his duties as curator.

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CLEARING HOUSES.

16. The rules and regulations contained in this by-law are made in pursuance of the powers contained in the act to incorporate the Canadian Bankers' Association (63 and 64 Vict., C. 93, 1900), and shall be adopted by and shall be the rules and regulations governing all clearing houses now existing and established or that may be hereafter established.

Rules and regulations respecting clearing houses made in pursuance of the powers contained in the act to incorporate the Canadian Bankers' Association.

1. The chartered banks doing business in any city or town, or such of them as may desire to do so, may form themselves into a clearing house. Chartered banks thereafter establishing offices in such city or town may be admitted to the clearing house by a vote of the members.

2. The clearing house is established for the purpose of facilitating daily exchanges and settlements between banks. It shall not either directly or indirectly be used as a means of obtaining payment of any item, charge, or claim disputed or objected to. It is expressly agreed that any bank receiving exchanges through the clearing house shall have the same rights to return any item and to refuse to credit any sum which it would have had were the exchanges made directly between the banks concerned instead of through the clearing house; and nothing in these or any future rules, and nothing done, or omitted to be done thereunder, and no failure to comply therewith shall deprive a bank of any rights it might have possessed had such rules not been made, to return any item or refuse to credit any sum; and payment through the clearing house of any item, charge, or claim shall not deprive a bank of any right to recover back the amount so paid.

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3. The annual meeting of the members shall be held on such day in each year and at such time and place as the members may fix by by-law. Special meetings may be called by the chairman or vice-chairman whenever it may be deemed necessary, and the chairman shall call a special meeting whenever requested to do so in writing by three or more members

4. At any meeting each member may be represented by one or more of its officers, but each bank shall have one vote only.

5. At every annual meeting there shall be elected by ballot a board of management, who shall hold office until the next annual meeting, and thereafter until their successors are appointed. They shall have the general oversight and management of the clearing house. They shall also deal with the expenses of the clearing house and the assessments made therefor. In the absence of any member of the board of management he may be represented by another officer of the bank of which he is an officer.

6. The board of management shall, at their first meeting after their appointment, elect, out of their own number, a chairman, a vice-chairman, and a secretary-treasurer, who shall perform the duties customarily appertaining to these offices.

The officers so selected shall be, respectively, the chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary-treasurer of the clearing house.

Should the bank of which the chairman is an officer be interested in any matter his powers and duties shall, with respect to such matter, be exercised by the vice-chairman, who shall also exercise the chairman's duties and powers in his absence.

7. Meetings of the board may be held at such times as the members of the same may determine. A special meeting shall be called by the secretary-treasurer on the written requisition of any member of the clearing house for the

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consideration of any matter submitted by it, of which meeting twenty-four hours' notice shall be given, but if such meeting is for action under rules 15 or 16 it shall be called immediately.

8. The expenses of the clearing house shall be met by an equal assessment upon the members, to be made by the board of management.

9. Any bank may withdraw from the clearing house by giving notice, in writing, to the chairman or secretary-treasurer between the hours of 1 and 3 o'clock p. m. and paying its due proportion of expenses and obligations then due. Said retirement to take effect from the close of business of the day on which such notice is given. The other banks shall be promptly notified of such withdrawal.

10. The board of management shall arrange with a bank to act as clearing bank for the receipt and disbursement of balances due by and to the various banks, but such bank shall be responsible only for the moneys and funds actually received by it from the debtor banks, and for the distribution of the same amongst the creditor banks, on the presentation of the clearing-house certificates properly discharged. The clearing bank shall give receipts for balances received from the debtor banks. The board of management shall also arrange for an officer to act as manager of the clearing house from time to time, but not necessarily the same officer each day.

11. The hours for making the exchanges at the clearing house, for payment of the debit balances to the clearing bank, and for payment out of the balances due the creditor banks, shall be fixed by by-law under clause 17. On completion of the exchanges, the balances due to or by each bank shall be settled and declared by the clearing-house manager, and if the clearing statements are readjusted under the provisions of these rules, the balances must then be similarly declared settled, and the balances due by debtor banks must be paid into the clearing bank

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at or during the hours fixed by by-law as aforesaid, provided that no credit balance, or portion thereof, shall be paid until all debit balances have been received by the clearing bank. At clearing houses where balances are payable in money they shall be paid in legal tender notes of large denominations.

At clearing houses where balances are payable by draft, should any settlement draft given to the clearing bank not be paid on presentation, the clearing bank shall at once notify, in writing, all the other banks of such default; and the amount of the unpaid drafts shall be repaid to the clearing bank by the banks whose clearances were against the defaulting bank on the day the unpaid draft was drawn, in proportion to such balances. The clearing bank shall collect the unpaid draft, and pay the same to the other banks in the above proportion. It is understood that the clearing bank is to be the agent of the associated banks, and to be liable only for moneys actually received by it.

Should any bank make default in paying to the clearing bank its debit balance, within the time fixed by this rule, such debit balance and interest thereon shall then be paid by the bank so in default to the chairman of the clearing house for the time being, and such chairman and his successor in office from time to time shall be a creditor of and entitled to recover the said debit balance, and interest thereon, from the defaulting bank. Such balances, when received by the said chairman or his successor in office, shall be paid by him to the clearing bank for the benefit of the banks entitled thereto.

12. In order that the clearing statements may not be unnecessarily interfered with, it is agreed that a bank objecting to any item delivered to it through the clearing house, or to any charge against it in the exchanges of the day, shall, before notifying the clearing-house manager of the objection, apply to the bank interested for payment

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of the amount of the item or charge objected to, and such amount shall thereupon be immediately paid to the objecting bank. Should such payment not be made the objecting bank may notify the clearing-house manager of such objection and nonpayment, and he shall thereupon deduct the said amount from the settling sheets of the banks concerned, and readjust the clearing statements and declare the correct balances in conformity with the changes so made, provided that such notice shall be given at least half an hour before the earliest hour fixed by by-law, as provided in clause 11, for payment of the balances due to the creditor banks. But notwithstanding that the objecting bank may not have so notified the clearing-house manager, it shall be the duty under these rules of the bank interested to make such payment on demand therefor being made at any time up to 3 o'clock: *Provided, however,* That if the objection is based on the absence from the deposit of any parcel or of any check or other item entered on the deposit slip, notice of such absence shall have been given to the bank interested before 12 o'clock noon, the whole, however, subject to the provisions of rule No. 2.

13. All bank notes, checks, drafts, bills, and other items (hereafter referred to as "items") delivered through the clearing house to a bank in the exchanges of the day, shall be received by such bank as a trustee only, and not as its own property, to be held upon the following trust, namely, upon payment by such bank at the proper hour to the clearing bank of the balance (if any) against it, to retain such items freed from said trust; and in default of payment of such balance, to return immediately and before 12.30 p. m., the said items unmarked and unmutilated through the clearing house to the respective banks, and the fact that any item can not be so returned shall not relieve the bank from the obligation to return the re-

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maining items, including the amount of the bank's own notes so delivered in trust.

Upon such default and return of said items each of the other banks shall immediately return all items which may have been received from the bank so in default, or pay the amount thereof to the defaulting bank through the clearing house. The items returned by the bank in default shall remain the property of the respective banks from which they were received, and the clearing-house manager shall adjust the settlement of balances anew.

A bank receiving through the clearing house such items as aforesaid shall be responsible for the proper carrying out of the trust upon which the same are received as aforesaid, and shall make good to the other banks, respectively, all loss and damage which may be suffered by the default in carrying out such trust.

14. In the event of any bank receiving exchanges through the clearing house making default in payment of its debit balance (if any) then, in lieu of its returning the items received by it as provided by rule 13, the board of management may require the banks to which the defaulting bank, or an account being taken of the exchanges of the day between it and the other banks, would be a debtor, in proportion to the amounts which, on such accounting, would be respectively due to them, to furnish the chairman of the clearing house, for the time being, with the amount of the balance due by the defaulting bank, and such amount shall be furnished accordingly, and shall be paid by the chairman to the clearing bank, which shall then pay over to the creditor banks the balances due to them in accordance with rule 11. The said funds for the chairman shall be furnished by being deposited in the clearing bank for the purpose aforesaid. The defaulting bank shall repay to the chairman for the time being, or to his successor in office, the amount of such debit balance

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and interest thereon, and the said chairman, and his successor in office, shall be entitled to recover the same from the defaulting bank. Any moneys so recovered shall be held in trust for and deposited in the clearing bank for the benefit of the banks entitled thereto.

15. If a bank neglects or refuses to pay its debit balance to the clearing bank, and if such default be made not because of inability to pay, the board of management may direct that the exchanges for the day between the defaulting bank and each of the other banks be eliminated from the clearing-house statements and that the settlements upon such exchanges be made directly between the banks interested, and not through the clearing house. Upon such direction being given, the clearing-house manager shall comply therewith and adjust the settlement of balances anew, and the settlements of the exchanges so eliminated shall thereupon be made directly between the banks interested.

16. Should any case arise to which, in the opinion of the board of management, the foregoing rules are inapplicable, or in which their operation would be inequitable, the board shall have power at any time to suspend the clearings and settlements of the day; but immediately upon such suspension the board shall call a meeting of the members of the clearing house to take such measures as may be necessary.

17. Every clearing house now existing or that may hereafter be established may enact by-laws, rules, and regulations for the government of its members not inconsistent with these rules, and may fix therein, among other things:

1. The name of the clearing house.
2. The number of members of the board of management and the quorum thereof.
3. The date, time, and place for the annual meeting.

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4. The mode of providing for the expenses of the clearing house.

5. The hours for making exchanges and for payment of the balances to or by the clearing bank.

6. The mode or medium in which balances are to be paid.

Any by-law, rule, or regulation passed or adopted under this clause may be amended at any meeting of the members, provided that not less than two weeks' notice of such meeting and of the proposed amendments has been given.

NOTICES.

17. Any notice of meeting, or any other notice authorized or required to be given to any member of the association, shall be deemed sufficiently given if sent through the post-office in a prepaid letter or by hand to the head office of any such member, addressed to such member or to the general manager or cashier of such member, and in the case of the Bank of British North America, through its chief office in the city of Montreal, addressed to it or to its general manager; and any notice sent by post shall be deemed to have been given on the day following that on which the same was mailed, and in proving the giving of such notice it shall be sufficient to prove that the letter was properly prepaid, addressed, and mailed.

Any notice authorized or required to be given to any member of the executive council may be sent by the secretary-treasurer by hand, or through the post-office, or by telegraph, or in any other manner which the said council may prescribe.

Any notice authorized or required to be given to any associate as such shall be sufficiently given if given by advertisement once in a newspaper in the cities of Montreal and Toronto.

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18. In the foregoing by-laws, unless there be something in the subject or context inconsistent therewith, the words:

“The association” shall mean “The Canadian Bankers’ Association,” incorporated by special act of the Parliament of Canada (63 and 64 Vict., C. 93).

“The executive council,” or “The council,” shall mean “The executive council of the Canadian Bankers’ Association.”

APPENDIX VIII.

TABLE SHOWING BY YEARS THE CLEARINGS IN THE CLEARING HOUSES OF DIVERS CANADIAN CITIES, 1890-1908.

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[\$000.00 omitted.]

	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	
1 Montreal	\$473,985	\$516,042	\$590,043	\$568,739	\$546,606	\$583,160	\$527,858	\$601,185	\$731,264	\$794,109	\$734,941	\$889,186	\$1,089,976	\$1,113,984	\$1,065,067	\$1,324,313	\$1,640,627	\$1,555,712	\$1,467,316	1
2 Toronto			^a 326,047	309,494	279,267	308,634	342,001	^b 361,756	439,489	504,569	513,697	599,385	809,078	808,908	842,097	1,047,490	1,219,005	1,220,905	1,166,992	2
3 Hamilton			38,303	37,825	34,301	37,577	33,753	33,350	35,637	40,298	40,262	42,554	45,970	53,710	59,003	68,385	78,480	88,104	72,339	3
4 Halifax	62,281	64,601	59,136	60,104	58,778	61,078	61,237	63,736	62,523	70,600	77,594	87,145	88,532	93,349	90,115	89,251	97,837	93,587	90,222	4
5 Winnipeg				^c 4,974	50,602	55,872	64,146	84,435	90,754	107,786	106,956	134,199	188,370	246,108	294,601	369,868	522,635	509,007	514,111	5
6 St. John's, New Brunswick								30,468	30,349	32,628	37,907	40,941	42,465	49,013	51,875	52,836	60,032	66,150	66,435	6
7 Victoria, British Columbia										33,500	32,038	30,007	28,680	30,817	33,070	36,890	40,005	55,339	55,156	7
8 Vancouver, British Columbia										42,179	46,161	46,038	54,723	66,100	74,029	88,460	102,006	191,714	183,083	8
9 Ottawa														97,480	104,549	105,749	121,215	135,007	152,969	9
10 Quebec														70,707	80,432	86,389	90,038	107,543	111,812	10
11 London, Ontario														^d 23,097	42,848	45,552	50,429	50,003	65,760	11
12 Total	536,266	580,643	1,013,530	976,163	969,557	1,046,323	1,028,997	1,174,710	1,390,019	1,625,680	1,589,560	1,871,101	2,539,864	2,689,823	2,735,664	3,335,510	3,900,004	4,197,405	4,142,114	12

^a Bank of Toronto did not avail itself of the clearing house until 25th November, 1895.

^b Quebec Bank withdrew 25th June, 1897, and reentered 1st November, 1900.

^c December.

^d From June, 1902, to end of January, 1903.

^e Edmonton.

^f Calgary.

APPENDIX IX.

NUMBER OF BRANCHES OF CANADIAN BANKS ON DECEMBER 31, 1889-1908.

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	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	
1 Ontario.....	231	237	247	254	263	272	275	272	269	285	321	336	349	420	491	549	701	845	929	918	1
2 Quebec.....	60	77	94	94	102	103	115	112	114	128	113	123	137	147	183	196	246	270	297	311	2
3 New Brunswick.....	32	31	32	30	29	31	31	31	31	31	34	34	35	41	47	49	50	54	55	58	3
4 Nova Scotia.....	47	48	51	53	58	62	62	64	69	70	74	85	89	101	99	101	100	106	104	104	4
5 Prince Edward Island.....	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	8	8	9	10	9	7	11	10	11	14	14	16	5
6 British Columbia.....	9	9	9	10	12	12	13	16	24	36	41	48	46	52	50	55	66	78	90	103	6
7 Manitoba.....	13	14	21	24	24	19	20	22	20	46	50	50	52	70	87	95	127	166	163	162	7
8 Northwest Territories.....	4	4	8	8	8	8	8	9	11	16	19	19	10	54	78	87	150	209	231	252	8
9 Yukon.....												2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	9
10 All Canada.....	402	426	468	479	502	513	530	533	555	622	663	708	750	904	1,049	1,145	1,454	1,745	1,886	1,927	10

NATIONAL MONETARY COMMISSION

THE
Canadian Banking
System

By

JOSEPH FRENCH JOHNSON

Dean of New York University School of Commerce,
Accounts, and Finance



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PREFATORY NOTE.

The author spent a few weeks in Canada during the spring of 1909 and is certain that he sorely taxed the patience of bankers and business men with his questions. But they did not let him know it, and he now wishes to thank them all for their uniform courtesy, and to say to his own countrymen that Canadian hospitality is of the warm, old-fashioned, dependable kind. He is under greatest obligation to Hon. T. C. Boville, deputy minister of finance; Mr. John T. P. Knight, of Montreal, secretary-treasurer of the Canadian Bankers' Association; Prof. James Mavor, of the University of Toronto; and Mr. Fred W. Field, editor of the Monetary Times. Readers interested in the development of the Canadian banking system should read, in connection with this volume, Dr. R. M. Breckenridge's "The History of Banking in Canada," which is also published by the National Monetary Commission.

THE AUTHOR.

APRIL 18, 1910.

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THE CANADIAN BANKING SYSTEM.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

Financially Canada is part of the United States. Fully half the gold reserve upon which its credit system is based is lodged in the vaults of the New York Clearing House. In any emergency requiring additional capital Montreal, Toronto, and Winnipeg call on New York for funds just as do St. Paul, Kansas City, and New Orleans. New York exchange is a current and universal medium in Canada and is in constant demand among the banks. A Canadian wishing to invest in securities that may be quickly marketed commonly turns to the New York market for stocks and bonds. Yet the American banker visiting in Canada, if he is unacquainted with the history of banking in his own country, finds himself in a land of financial novelties, for Canada has a banking system unlike any in operation in the United States at the present time. Twenty-nine banks, known as the "chartered banks," transact all the banking business of the Dominion. They have 2,200 branches, and each may establish new branches without increase of its capital stock. They issue notes without depositing security with the government

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and in such abundance that no other form of currency in denominations of \$5 and above is in circulation. Notwithstanding the fact that the notes are "unsecured," their "goodness" is unquestioned among the Canadian people.

THE SYSTEM NOT NEW.

But to the student of the history of banking in the United States there is little that is radically new in the Canadian system. He finds in it many of the practices and expedients that were found excellent in the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century, and is almost persuaded that but for the civil war what is now known as the Canadian banking system would everywhere be called the American system.

The fiscal exigencies of war, which have caused changes in the banking systems of most countries, have had no influence upon the development of banking in Canada. During the first half of the nineteenth century the commercial and financial interests of Canada and the United States were comparatively intimate and the financial institutions of both countries developed on similar lines. The safety-fund system, first introduced in the State of New York in 1829, found favor also in Canada and is still an integral part of the Canadian banking system. Branch banking, which was most successfully illustrated in this country by the Bank of Indiana, and which now exists in some form or other in almost all countries except the United States, has always prevailed in Canada. The importance of a prompt redemption of bank notes as exemplified in the old Suffolk banking system in New England

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before the war, was fully realized in Canada and is probably better illustrated in the present Canadian system than in any other country. There bank notes and bank checks are treated as identical in nature, both being cleared with the same regularity and promptness. The so-called free banking system, which was first adopted in the State of New York in 1839 and thereafter adopted by 18 other States of the Union, was tried in Canada in the fifties, but not on a large scale. This system, requiring that issues of bank notes should be secured by a segregated deposit of certain classes of stocks and bonds, has never met with approval among the leading bankers of Canada.

The Canadian system is a product of evolution. It has taken its present form because of the commercial and financial needs of the Canadian people. It was not created by lawyers or statesmen to meet a fiscal need of the government, but has grown up gradually under the fostering care of experienced bankers, no changes having been made until experience proved them necessary or advisable. The business interests of the Dominion, through their representatives in the provincial legislatures and in the Dominion Parliament, have had much to do with its development in a natural effort to protect the rights of the borrower, the depositor, and the note holder. The banks do not possess all the privileges many of the bankers would like to have, nor do the business men of Canada believe in the real necessity for all the protection given to the banks by the law, yet in the main the system is satisfactory both to bankers and to their customers.

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The chartered banks transact the business which in the United States is divided among national banks, trust companies, private banks, and savings banks. They buy and sell commercial paper, discount the notes of their customers, lend money on stocks and bonds, make advances to farmers, and sometimes aid in the financing of railroads and industrial enterprises. To a Canadian the word "bank" means one of the twenty-nine "chartered banks," for the law prohibits the use of the word "bank" by any other institution.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS.

The only other financial institutions in Canada which possess much importance are the mortgage and loan companies. These usually operate under charters granted by the provincial legislatures and do a business similar to that of the farm and mortgage companies which once flourished in the United States, making loans to farmers for a term of years and taking farm mortgage for security. They also make loans upon urban and suburban real estate and thus aid in the upbuilding of the cities and their suburbs. The business of these institutions is made possible by the fact that the bank act does not permit the chartered banks to accept loans secured by real estate.

The Dominion government maintains a double system of savings banks. One set is managed by the post-office department, every post-office receiving deposits. The other set is managed by the finance department. The post-office department also sells annuities and old-age pensions. The money received through the savings banks is regarded as a loan from the people and is used,

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like money obtained by taxation, in the payment of the government's general expenses. The government is required to carry a gold reserve of 10 per cent against the savings deposits, but no assets are set aside for their security. The chartered banks pay the same rate of interest and get most of the business, for they offer facilities with which the government does not attempt to compete.^a Most of the government's deposits come from the poorest and most ignorant classes, people who in all countries are suspicious of banks. In 1909 the deposits amounted to about \$60,000,000, of which fully 80 per cent came through the post-offices. In the same year the time or savings deposits of the chartered banks amounted to about \$350,000,000. Some of the Canadian cities maintain municipal savings banks, but they are of relatively small importance.

Trust companies in Canada are not financial institutions. They are trust companies in fact as well as in name, their business being to act as trustee and administrator. A few of them accept deposits, although it is not certain that they have a right to do so. The bulk of the money they handle comes to them through the administration of estates and trust funds.

Private banking firms are almost unknown in Canada, there being only two or three in the entire Dominion, and

^a The attitude of the bankers toward the government savings banks is shown by the following remarks of a Montreal banker: "The government savings bank deposits are in the aggregate too small to have made any inroads upon our business. The disadvantages to the depositor are so many more than with the savings accounts of the banks that people prefer the banks. We do not worry over the competition that they offer. The accounts that the government gets we are about as well off without."

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these do a mortgage and loan business rather than a strictly commercial banking business.

Hence, if anyone seeks to understand the financial or banking situation in Canada, he must devote his attention in the main to the chartered banks. These through their branches furnish the loanable capital necessary for the support of the Dominion's trade and industry and for much of its agricultural enterprise. To them the government turns when funds are needed for internal improvements or when the exchequer faces a deficit. The promoters of street railways, steam railways, steam railroads, and other permanent improvements take counsel with the managers of these chartered banks before they issue their securities. The banks as a rule do not invest their funds in the stocks or bonds of new enterprises, yet their managers are the men most familiar with the world's money markets and their approval, therefore, of any financial undertaking is highly esteemed.

MONETARY SYSTEM.

Canada's monetary system is substantially the same as that of the United States. The unit is the dollar of 23.22 grains of pure gold. The gold coins of the United States are legal tender in Canada. So is the British sovereign, which is rated at \$4.86 $\frac{2}{3}$. Until recently all Canadian coins were minted in either England or the United States, but in 1908 a branch of the British mint was established in Ottawa.

The paper currency of Canada consists of Dominion notes and bank notes. The former are issued by the government under authority of the "Dominion notes act,"

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which permits an unlimited issue, requiring security as follows: That for \$30,000,000 of the notes outstanding the minister of finance shall hold in gold and government securities a reserve equal to 25 per cent of the issue, the amount held in gold to be not less than 15 per cent of the amount of notes outstanding; and that against all notes issued in excess of \$30,000,000 the minister shall hold an equal amount of gold. The framers of the act evidently had in mind the limitation placed upon the Bank of England's issue of notes by the Peel act of 1844. The Dominion notes, accordingly, are gold certificates rather than credit notes. The minister of finance is required to redeem the notes in gold at branches of his department in several different cities. If need be, the minister may sell bonds to obtain gold for use in the redemption of the notes.

Dominion notes are legal tender and may be issued in any denominations, but experience has proved that they are most needed in bills of large denominations for use in banking reserves and in the form of \$1 and \$2 bills, the banks not being permitted to issue notes under \$5. The average circulation of Dominion notes in 1908 amounted to \$68,602,944, of which amount \$52,882,708 was in \$500, \$1,000, and \$5,000 bills, and \$14,910,365 in \$1 and \$2 bills. There has been a pretty constant increase in the amount of Dominion notes outstanding. In 1900 the total was only \$26,550,465. The bills of large denominations are practically all carried by the banks in their reserves.

Canadian banks are not permitted to issue notes of a denomination less than \$5. Of fives and multiples thereof

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they may issue an amount equal to their paid-up capital without deposit of security and without payment of tax. As a result the currency in the hands of the people consists almost exclusively of bank notes. The amount in circulation increased from \$50,000,000 in 1900 to \$81,400,000 in 1909.

RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES.

The Dominion of Canada contains more territory than the United States with Alaska included. Its area is 3,745,000 square miles, of which about 70,000,000 acres are occupied. Much of the territory lying in the unknown North will probably remain long unoccupied and unexplored. Yet the Dominion contains idle land and unutilized resources sufficient to maintain a population many times larger than it now possesses. The minister of finance in his budget speech in April, 1909, estimated the population of Canada at 7,500,000 people. It would be hard to find a Canadian who does not believe that this country is destined soon to have 100,000,000 people enjoying all the comforts and luxuries of modern civilization, and it is partly because of this confident belief that the Canadian public has lost interest in the question of annexation to the United States.

The leading industries of Canada are agriculture, lumbering, mining, and fisheries. Western Canada has a soil and climate well suited to the culture of wheat and good for the raising of cattle and horses. Dairying is an important industry in Ontario and all the provinces to the eastward. In 1908 Canada produced 115,000,000 bushels of wheat, 267,000,000 bushels of oats, 50,000,000 bushels of

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barley, 21,000,000 bushels of corn, and 73,000,000 bushels of potatoes. The Province of Manitoba produced nearly one-half of the wheat crop and Saskatchewan one-third of it.

The foreign trade of Canada has more than doubled in the last ten years. In 1898 the total of imports and exports amounted to \$304,000,000, the imports having been \$140,000,000 and the exports \$164,000,000. In 1908 the total was \$651,000,000, the imports having been \$371,000,000, and the exports \$280,000,000. Since 1902 the imports have uniformly been larger than the exports, the excess of imports doubtless representing in some measure the investments of foreign capital.

CHAPTER II.

ESSENTIALS OF THE CANADIAN BANKING SYSTEM.

A chartered bank in Canada is a bank of branches, not a bank with branches. The parent bank, technically known as the "head office," neither takes deposits nor lends money. All the banking business is done by the branches, each enjoying considerable independence, but all subject to the supervision and control of the head office. The law places no restrictions upon the number or location of branches. Canadian banks, therefore, have branches in foreign countries as well as in Canada.

The general bank act, under the terms of which every bank obtains and holds its charter, is subject to revision every ten years. In its present form it is substantially as passed in 1890. A few unimportant changes were made in 1900, and among both bankers and politicians there is some talk to-day about the modifications of the act that will be proposed in 1910. The bankers themselves would be well satisfied if the present law were reenacted without amendment.

PROCESS OF INCORPORATION.

The provisions of the bank act with respect to the organization of new banks are intended to guard against the entry of unfit or inexperienced persons into the banking business. The minimum required capital of a bank is \$500,000, of which all must be subscribed and one-half paid in before a new bank can open. At least five men of integrity and good financial standing must agree to act as

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provisional directors and secure a favorable report on their project from the parliamentary committee on banking and commerce. These men must agree to subscribe for fairly large blocks of stock, otherwise the committee will be inclined to reject their application. They must convince the committee that their project is a well-considered one, that there is need for the new bank, that it is a bona fide enterprise, that they have in mind a competent man for general manager, that they really intend and expect to do a legitimate banking business. If they satisfy the parliamentary committee it will be granted. The bank, however, can not yet begin business. Provisional directors now have merely the right to advertise and cause stock books to be opened. If inside of one year capital stock to the amount of \$500,000 has been subscribed and \$250,000 thereof paid in, the provisional directors may call a meeting of the shareholders, at which a board of regular directors shall be chosen. Before this meeting is held at least \$250,000 in cash must be paid over to the minister of finance. The regular directors must then apply to a body known as the treasury board ^a for a certificate permitting the bank to issue notes ^b and begin business and

^a The treasury board consists of the minister of finance and five ministers nominated from time to time by the governor in council. The minister of finance is chairman of the board and the deputy minister of finance ex officio the secretary.

^b The designing and engraving of the notes is left with the bank itself. Many of the banks have had their notes made in the United States, but a bank-note company has been established in Canada and is getting a larger proportion of this business every year. The notes must bear the signatures of two officers of the bank. The authority to sign, however, may be delegated to subordinates. When notes are shipped by the head office to a branch they are usually sent with only one signature, the other being supplied by one of the branch offices. If the notes should be lost or stolen en route they are worthless.

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the treasury board may refuse this certificate unless it is entirely satisfied that all the requirements of the law have been met. Delay on the part of the treasury board might prove fatal to the new enterprise, for if a new bank does not obtain a certificate within one year from the date of its incorporation, all the rights, powers, and privileges conferred by the act of incorporation cease.

These requirements make it impossible to organize a new bank in Canada with any degree of secrecy. When application is made for a new charter the fact is known to every banker in the Dominion. The secretary of the Canadian Bankers' Association, although not required to do so by law, would undoubtedly get together at once all possible information with regard to the proposed incorporators and the board of provisional directors.

Having obtained its charter, a new bank must open its head office in the place designated, and may then proceed to establish branches or agencies, upon the number and location of which the law places no restriction. Under its charter it has authority to do a general banking business; it may discount commercial paper, lend money on collateral security, accept deposits payable on demand or after notice, and issue circulating notes up to the amount of its unimpaired paid-up capital in denominations of \$5 and multiples thereof. An amendment of the bank act passed July 20, 1908, gives the bank the right to issue what may be called an emergency circulation during the crop-moving season (October 1 to January 31). During this period the legal maximum of the circulation of a bank is its paid-up capital plus 15 per cent of its combined paid-up capital and surplus or rest fund. This emergency circulation,

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which consists of notes in form and in other respects exactly like the regular issues, is subject to a tax at a rate not to exceed 5 per cent per annum, the rate being fixed by the governor in council. If a bank's circulation does not exceed its paid-up capital, it pays no tax.

SECURITY AND REDEMPTION OF NOTES.

The law is silent on several subjects that seem of great importance to most bankers in the United States. For instance, it does not require that the banks shall deposit with a government official, or in any way set aside any kind of security for the protection of the note holder. It does not even require that the banks shall carry a cash reserve against either notes or deposits, nor does the law make the notes a legal tender for any payment. A bank need not accept the notes of other banks. The government does not guarantee the redemption of the notes. Neither does it bind itself to receive them in payment of dues to itself.

Nevertheless the notes of the Canadian banks are everywhere acceptable at par, the people apparently not being at all concerned about their "goodness." And their confidence in the note has been well justified, for nobody since 1890 has lost a dollar through the failure of a bank to redeem its notes. Following are the legal requirements, which for twenty years have proved adequate protection for the note holder:

1. Every bank must redeem its notes at its head office and in such commercial centers as are designated by the treasury board. The redemption cities are the same for all the banks. They are Toronto, Montreal, Halifax, Winnipeg, Victoria, St. John, and Charlottetown.

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2. Each bank must keep on deposit with the minister of finance a sum of lawful money (gold or Dominion notes) equal to 5 per cent of its average circulation; the total so deposited is called the "circulation redemption fund." It is a guaranty or insurance fund for use, if need be, in the redemption of the notes of failed banks.

3. Bank notes possess first lien upon the assets of a bank.

4. Bank stockholders are liable to an assessment equal to the par value of their stock.

5. A bank must make to the minister of finance on or before the fifteenth of each month a detailed statement of its assets and liabilities on the last business day of the preceding month. This monthly return, the form for which is set forth in the act, must be signed by three general officers.

6. The Canadian Bankers' Association, an incorporated body of which each bank is a member, is given supervision by the bank act of the issue and cancellation of notes and of the affairs of a failed bank.

7. The notes of a failed bank draw interest at 5 per cent from the date fixed for their redemption by the minister of finance, who may redeem them out of the assets of the bank or out of the "circulation redemption fund."

IMPORTANCE OF REDEMPTION.

Each of these provisions of the law has its value and significance, but only the first is absolutely essential to the successful operation of the system. All the other provisions might be changed or abolished without impairment of the efficiency of the banking system. But the abolishment of this redemption system would at once give Canada

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a new banking system. The bank note is almost the sole circulating medium in Canada, and the people have confidence in it because it is tested every day at the clearing houses and proves itself as good as gold. This daily test would probably not take place with the same regularity as now if the banks did not have branches or if they were obliged to deposit security against their issues. Canadian banks are national, not local institutions. All but a few of them have branches in every part of the Dominion, and these branches, as fast as they receive the notes of other banks, either send them in to the nearest redemption center or convert them into lawful money—or its equivalent, a bill of exchange—through branches of the issuing banks located in the same towns. The 29 chartered banks have 2,200 branches and each bank is seeking, through its branches, to satisfy all the legitimate needs of the people for a circulating medium. When the note of a bank is in circulation it is earning money for the bank, but when it is in the vault or on the counter of the bank it is an idle and useless piece of paper. Hence every bank always pays out its own notes through its branches and sends the notes of other banks in for redemption, thus increasing its own circulation and strengthening its own reserve.

Furthermore, if the banks were not allowed complete freedom of issue within the prescribed limit, but were required to deposit some form of security, as is required of the national banks in the United States, an investment or speculative risk would arise that would inevitably cause friction. If bonds were designated as security, bankers might often be tempted by high prices to sell their bonds and forego the profit on circulation for the

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sake of making a larger profit by the sale of the security. Thus the volume of bank notes might contract even at a time when the people needed more currency. In such case, of course, Canada would be obliged to import gold in order to fill the gap in the circulating medium.

THE CIRCULATION REDEMPTION FUND.

The 5 per cent insurance fund for the redemption of the notes of failed banks is theoretically an important and prominent part of the system, yet practically it would seem to be of little consequence, for not once since 1890 has it been necessary to use a dollar of the fund. Banks have failed, to be sure, but the notes of these banks have always been redeemed either out of the assets or by recourse to the double liability of the shareholders. It is a mistake to suppose that the people of Canada have confidence in bank notes because of the existence of this redemption fund. The average business man knows nothing about the fund and if his attention were called to it as being a source of security for the bank notes he would probably think a 5 per cent reserve altogether too small. The real reason why the people have faith in bank notes is because the notes are always honored by the banks and never fail to stand the test of the clearing house. In other words, they believe that bank notes are good for about the same reason that they believe the sun will rise in the east every twenty-four hours and do not bother themselves about reasons.

Nevertheless this redemption fund does contribute to the strength of the banking system. It makes each bank to a certain extent liable for the mistakes of other banks,

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and as a result gives rise to a spirit of mutual watchfulness and helpfulness. Other features of the system contribute to the same result, especially the fact that a Canadian bank accepts from a depositor without indorsement the notes of other banks. Since the banks have branches in agricultural and mining communities, often distant from the railroad by several days' journey, and these branches are accepting the notes of other banks and giving credit for them as if they were gold itself, it is evidently important that each banker should have all possible information with regard to the status and business of his competitors. As a result one finds among the bankers of Canada a surprisingly intimate knowledge of each other's affairs.

TWO NEGATIVE QUALITIES.

The two negative qualities of the Canadian bank note—its lack of a legal-tender quality and of a government guaranty—at first sight may seem to readers in the United States a source of weakness. Yet Canadian bankers would doubtless all agree that nothing would be gained by making bank notes legal tender for any kind of payment or by making the government in any measure liable for their ultimate redemption. Such measures would probably be rejected as likely to prove harmful. It would be like hampering a flying machine with unnecessary bars of steel. Bank notes, like bank checks, are mere promises to pay money and are more convenient than money because they can be created as need for a medium of exchange arises. When either has done the work that called it into existence, it should disappear from circula-

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tion and be redeemed. If it is made a legal tender like money itself, or if its redemption is guaranteed by a strong government, there is always the danger that ignorant classes of people will regard it as money itself and withdraw it from circulation.

The Canadian government has nothing to do with the daily redemption of bank notes and does not guarantee that they shall be redeemed. It is custodian of the 5 per cent redemption fund and is under obligation to redeem the notes of failed banks out of this fund, but if a series of bank failures should exhaust it the note holder has no guaranty that government funds will be used for his relief.^a

The possession by the note holder of a first lien upon the assets of a bank, including the funds that may be collected from shareholders on account of their double liability, gives rise to such general confidence in the ultimate convertibility of a bank note that the notes of a failed bank, on account of the interest they bear, sometimes command a premium. As a rule, the notes of such a bank are collected by the other banks and held until the date of redemption has been named by the minister of finance.

MANAGEMENT OF FAILED BANKS.

If a Canadian bank fails to meet any of its liabilities as they accrue, it forfeits at once its right of independent management and is taken charge of by a "curator" appointed by the Canadian Bankers' Association. His powers and duties are defined thus in the law:

^a Bank act, section 65: (6) Nothing herein contained shall be construed to impose any liability upon the government of Canada, or upon the minister, beyond the amount available from time to time out of the circulation fund.

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“The curator shall assume supervision of the affairs of the bank, and all necessary arrangements for the payment of notes of the bank issued for circulation then outstanding and in circulation shall be made under his supervision; and generally he shall have all powers and shall take all steps and do all things necessary or expedient to protect the rights and interests of the creditors and shareholders of the bank, and to conserve and insure the proper disposition according to law of the assets of the bank, and for the purpose aforesaid he shall have full and free access to all books, accounts, documents, and papers of the bank; and the curator shall continue to supervise the affairs of the bank until he is removed from office, or until the bank resumes business, or until a liquidator is duly appointed to wind up the business of the bank.”

If the curator within ninety days is able to restore the solvency of the bank so that it is able to resume payments, it may resume business; otherwise the bank may be “wound up” and its charter revoked. During the first three months of a bank’s suspension the stockholders have a chance to raise funds and restore the bank to solvency. If they fail, the curator then gives place to an official called a liquidator, who is appointed by the courts. Under a curator the stockholders still have hope and opportunity; under the liquidator the creditors of the bank are in the saddle.

The liquidator must first of all attend to the notes in circulation, their lien upon the assets being prior to all others. Inasmuch as the notes bear interest at 5 per cent from the date of suspension, the other banks are perfectly willing to hold them in their vaults until such a date as the liquidator names for their final redemption, all feeling cer-

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tain that the notes will sooner or later be paid, for if the assets of the failed bank should prove inadequate, the mutual guaranty fund in the possession of the government will be drawn upon.

Next to the notes the deposits of the Dominion government have a prior lien, and then the deposits of provincial governments. If the assets of the bank are not sufficient to satisfy all the claims, the stockholders are liable to an assessment equal in amount to the amount of capital stock to which they subscribed plus any portion thereof which has not been paid up.^a Thus if a stockholder has subscribed for 50 shares of stock, par value \$100, and has paid in only \$2,500, he is liable to an assessment of \$7,500, of which \$2,500 is on account of the unpaid subscription and \$5,000 is on account of the double liability.^b

MONTHLY RETURNS TO THE GOVERNMENT.

The law provides for no publicity with regard to bank affairs beyond the returns to the minister of finance. The items called for in the monthly report are shown in the statements for February and November, 1909, printed in chapter VI, pages 75 and 76. The minister of finance may call for supplementary information or "special returns from any bank whenever in his judgment they are necessary to afford a full and complete knowledge of its condi-

^a Section 89 of the bank act: "In the event of the property and assets of the bank being insufficient to pay its debts and liabilities, each shareholder of the bank shall be liable for the deficiency to an amount equal to the par value of the shares held by him in addition to any amount not paid up on such shares."

^b As a matter of fact in the case of most Canadian banks the paid-up capital stock is equal to the capital subscribed. For instance, the returns to the government for February, 1909, give the following totals: Capital subscribed, \$98,294,381; capital paid up, \$96,160,555.

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tion." The law, however, gives him no right of examination, and the government maintains no inspecting force.

In addition to the monthly returns, each must make report once a year as to its dividends, drafts, and bills of exchange that have remained unpaid for five years, and the names and residences of its shareholders. This information, as well as the monthly returns, is given to Parliament and the public.

CANADIAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Canadian Bankers' Association is an incorporated body with powers and duties prescribed in an amendment to the bank act passed in 1900. Each chartered bank is represented in the membership and has one vote. The association is required by law to supervise the issue of bank notes and to report to the government all over-issues, to look after the destruction of worn and mutilated notes, and to take charge of suspended banks. Its headquarters are in Montreal in the Bank of Montreal building, and its active executive officer is the secretary-treasurer. The expenses of the association are apportioned among the banks and do not apparently constitute a very heavy burden, for the secretary has an exceedingly small staff. All expenses incurred by the association on account of a suspended bank are, of course, a charge against the assets of the bank.

When the notes of a bank are so worn or mutilated that it wishes to replace them with new notes, notice is sent to the secretary of the association, a date is fixed, and in the presence of the secretary the old notes are duly

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counted and taken to a furnace,^a where they are consumed in the presence of the secretary and other witnesses. After this solemn operation has been performed and the signatures of all parties observing it have been duly attested, new notes are issued by the association to replace those that have been destroyed.

The clearing houses in the Dominion are subject to regulation by the association. It also has the power to establish subsections and to do educational work by providing for lectures, competitive papers, examinations, etc. The Journal of the Canadian Bankers' Association, a monthly publication of excellent quality, is edited by the secretary and is at present the only educational force at work among bank employees.

^a Each bank maintains one such furnace for this purpose. A wire netting over the chimney prevents the draft from carrying any portions of the consumed notes into the air.

CHAPTER III.

THE MANAGEMENT.

The keynote of the organization of a Canadian bank is the centralization of responsibility. One man, the general manager, is supreme. Above him in authority under the law are the directors, representing the stockholders. Below him is an army of employees, of whom all but two or three owe their positions entirely to his favor.

The general managers of Canadian banks are, without exception, men who have been in the banking business since boyhood. They have worked their way up through all the grades of employment by the force of brains, industry, character, and good health. They know from experience the task of every employee and they know when it is well done. They hold their positions because they have proved their fitness. They are, in other words, professional bankers. Untrained outsiders can not break into the banking business as they do in the United States.

The president of a Canadian bank is merely the chairman of the board of directors. This body holds meetings at least once a week. At these meetings the general manager reports on the business of the week and presents such applications for new credit as seem to require the approval of the board. As a rule, the general manager gives to the directors, either orally or in typewritten form, full information with regard to all the operations of the bank. His recommendations as to the granting of credits

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are usually approved without much discussion, yet in Canada it is expected of every bank director that he shall give close and personal attention to the bank's operations as reported by the general manager and promptly raise objection whenever in his judgment a mistake is being made. All extensions of credit are reported by the general manager and must be formally approved by the board. Members of the board can not personally investigate individual cases, and are therefore obliged to place great reliance upon the judgment of the general manager. Nevertheless it is expected of each director that he shall always be well informed as to the important operations of the bank, as to its general policy, as to the amount of its cash reserve, the nature of its investments, etc.

The directors are not forced to rely entirely on the general manager. An officer called the "chief accountant" is expected to know quite as much about the bank's affairs as the general manager himself, and is often present at the board meetings. If the general manager misrepresents any transaction, or fails to reveal to the board the true condition of the bank, the accountant is expected to correct him. In some of the larger banks the board of directors has deemed it wise to place in the head office still another man to represent them, having full power to acquaint himself with the details of all transactions. This man is usually given some routine duties to perform, yet his prime function in the head office is as a representative of the board of directors. The appointment of such a man does not imply any lack of confidence in the general manager, but is justified rather by the belief that the general

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manager, with two good advisers, will be less liable to an aberration of judgment than if he has only one.

The other general or "chief" officers, with headquarters in the "head office," are the superintendent of branches, the inspector, and the secretary. The superintendent is the general manager's right-hand man and is usually in very close touch with his chief and in sympathy with his general policy. The superintendents of the larger banks have the assistance of deputy and department superintendents.

The inspector is at the head of the bank's system of examination. He and his assistants visit the branches at irregular intervals, counting the cash and examining the discounts and other assets. As a rule they are keen to find something to condemn or criticise, and branch managers and their subordinates seem to regard them with considerable fear and respect. Canadian banks are not subject to government inspection, and bankers maintain that no inspection by an outsider could be as thorough or salutary as that which results from the present system. The expenses of the inspecting staff of some of the larger banks amount to \$80,000 a year.

Theoretically the board of directors is superior to the general manager and can bring him to a halt if he enters upon any policy of which they disapprove. In practice, however, the general manager of a Canadian bank knows so much more about the banking business than any one or all of the directors combined that if a conflict of opinion does arise between the board and himself, the chances are that he will dominate. Yet in most of the banks it would be very difficult for the general manager from improper

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motives to hold long to a detrimental policy. Even though the accountant did not report against him, the directors, the moment their suspicions were aroused, would call into consultation the managers of some of the larger branches and other experienced officers in whose judgment they had confidence. The entire system of management is so correlated that it is practically impossible for one man to be the bank. Some of the smaller institutions are doubtless dominated by single individuals, but as a rule a Canadian bank has connected with it in responsible positions, all having access to the board of directors, so many men of long experience in the banking business that no one man, however high his position, can use the institution to gratify personal ambition or cupidity.

MANAGEMENT OF BRANCHES.

The responsible head of a branch is called the manager. He is selected by the general manager and must conduct his branch in harmony with the views of his chief. His duties are analogous to those of a bank president in the United States. His chief assistant, called the accountant, has charge of all the details, and in the manager's absence is the ranking officer in the branch. He is responsible to the manager and is expected to keep fully informed as to the manager's policy in all its details and to be familiar with all correspondence that passes between the manager and the general manager. He is, in fact, the manager's understudy. In the United States the duties of the so-called Canadian bank accountant are assumed in the smaller banks by the cashier, and in the larger banks are divided between the vice-president and the cashier.

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A large branch is in daily communication either by wire or letter with the general manager. The head office allots to each a certain quantity of the bank's notes, a certain amount of "legals," as the Dominion notes are called, and a certain credit balance in New York and London and other foreign cities. A limit is also placed upon the amount which a branch may loan without consultation with the head office. This limit, of course, varies with the different branches, according to the magnitude of their business.^a In some respects each branch is treated as an independent institution. For example, a man having an account in one branch of an institution can not draw checks on another branch. His checks upon the branch with which he has an account, if presented at the counters of other branches of the same bank, will be treated as if they were checks upon some other institution, exchange being charged. A customer, however, can easily arrange to have his account transferred from one branch to another of the same bank.

^a "Our branch managers," said a Montreal banker, "have the authority to make loans up to a certain size on their own responsibility. Then each Province has its own supervisor or inspector. In case there is an application for a loan too large for the branch manager to pass on, he makes his recommendation and sends it on to his district supervisor. Up to a certain figure these supervisors have authority to grant loans. If the size of the loan comes within this figure and the branch manager's recommendation is O. K., and it has the approval of his best judgment, the supervisor will grant the loan. With us he can loan up to \$10,000 on his own judgment, backed by the branch manager's. If the loan is for a greater amount than this, the supervisor makes his recommendation and forwards the application with his and the branch manager's opinion to the head office. The head office usually follows the advice of the supervisor and branch manager. If this should come at a time when it is necessary to restrict loans, we can refuse these big loans or have the customer get along with less."

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Managers of branches are required to make weekly returns to the head office of all loans and discounts. They are required to make quarterly reports of profits earned. Every six months they credit earnings to head office. At the end of every month they must submit a balance sheet, a detailed statement of current accounts and liabilities, and a description of all collateral security which they hold. Every quarter they report the amount of profits earned, and twice a year they credit earnings to "head office."

The manager of a branch is allowed, as a rule, to select the members of his staff, but this privilege gives him little patronage, for custom prescribes that vacancies shall be filled by promotion. Boys are engaged as "juniors" at about the age of 14 and are paid a salary of \$150 or \$200 a year. Rarely does a bank take into its service a youth who is over 16 years of age, or a man who has been trained up in another bank. Practically no university men are in the banking business. Bankers believe that the best results are obtained by taking on boys at 15 or 16 and training them up through the various subordinate positions, gradually increasing their salaries and adding to their responsibilities. When a boy applies for a position in a bank he is given an application blank containing nearly a hundred questions with regard to his parents, schooling, favorite studies, use of tobacco and intoxicants, attendance at church, his present salary and employment if he is at work, etc., and is required to give the names of at least three or more persons, reputable householders, who have known him for five years. If he is hired, he must then take an oath of secrecy, solemnly binding

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himself not to reveal to any person any information whatever with regard to the operations of the bank.

These precautions in the employment of juniors are deemed necessary because the bank expects during the coming generations to select its branch managers and general managers from these juniors. After a boy is admitted to a bank he is expected not only to do his work well, but also to conduct himself in the community in an orderly and becoming fashion. If he contracts bad habits, gets into debt, or keeps fast company, he is likely to lose his place in the bank, and he must beware of too early marriage, for his general manager will disapprove if he marries on a salary of less than \$1,000. This means that the average bank clerk in Canada can not marry much before the age of 25. The managers of the banks want the members of their staffs to be well dressed and well fed. Marriage on a small salary, they fear, would give their clerks a worried aspect detrimental to the interests of the bank.

Employees are obliged to furnish a bond, which may be supplied either by private persons or by a guaranty company. Some of the banks have formed mutual guaranty funds, to which all employees, from the general manager down, make regular contribution. The bank itself usually contributes at the outset a sum of money out of profits as a nucleus for the fund. Employees are allowed interest on the money they contribute to the fund, and the entire contribution is returned to the employee when he retires from the service of the bank.

Some of the larger banks have instituted pension schemes for the benefit of employees, the directors setting

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aside each year a certain percentage of the profits for this purpose and deducting from each employee's salary a certain percentage. The mutual insurance plan has been found more economical than the older methods, and the pension scheme is said to be exerting a most beneficent effect upon the morale of the banks' staff.

CHAPTER IV.

LOANS AND DISCOUNTS.

The assets of Canadian banks are unusually good for two reasons: First, because the law provides effective safeguards; second, because banking practice in Canada makes it very difficult to negotiate commercial paper of inferior quality.

The bank act gives almost a blanket privilege to a bank.^a It may engage in all transactions appertaining "to the business of banking." But the sections of the act which contribute most to the quality of its assets are sections 88 and 89. These make it possible for a Canadian banker to become, as it were, a silent partner in an industry and at the same time to possess a first lien on all its liquid assets. A bank may loan money to wholesale dealers and shippers of produce of all kinds and possess a lien, not only upon the goods originally accepted as secured, but upon the goods which in the course of business are substituted therefor. These sections apply also to manufacturers, so that a bank may lend to a manufacturer

^a The bank may open branches, agencies, and offices and may engage in and carry on business as a dealer in gold and silver coin and bullion, and it may deal in, discount, and lend money and make advances upon the security of, and may take as collateral security for any loan made by it, bills of exchange, promissory notes, and other negotiable securities, or the stock, bonds, debentures, and obligations of municipal and other corporations, whether secured by mortgage or otherwise, or Dominion, provincial, British, foreign, and other public securities, and it may engage in and carry on such business generally as appertains to the business of banking.

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upon the security of his raw material and retain its lien upon the property through all the processes of manufacturing, having the same rights and powers with respect to the goods that it would possess if it had acquired the same by virtue of a warehouse receipt. On account of their importance sections 88 and 89 are printed below:

SEC. 88. The bank may lend money to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in products of agriculture, the forest, quarry and mine, or the sea, lakes and rivers, or to any wholesale purchaser or shipper of or dealer in live stock or dead stock and the products thereof, upon the security of such products, or of such live stock or dead stock and the products thereof.

2. The bank may allow the goods, wares, and merchandise covered by such security to be removed and other goods, wares, and merchandise, such as mentioned in the last preceding subsection, to be substituted therefor, if the goods, wares, and merchandise so substituted are of substantially the same character, and of substantially the same value as, or of less value than, those for which they have been so substituted; and the goods, wares, and merchandise so substituted shall be covered by such security as if originally covered thereby.

3. The bank may lend money to any person engaged in business as a wholesale manufacturer of any goods, wares, and merchandise, upon the security of the goods, wares, and merchandise manufactured by him, or procured for such manufacture.

4. Any such security, as mentioned in the foregoing provisions of this section, may be given by the owner of said goods, wares, and merchandise, stock, or products.

5. The security may be taken in the form set forth in Schedule C to this act, or to the like effect.

6. The bank shall, by virtue of such security, acquire the same rights and powers in respect to the goods, wares, and merchandise, stock, or products covered thereby, as if it had acquired the same by virtue of a warehouse receipt. (53 V., c. 31, s. 74, 63-64 V., c. 26, s. 17.)

89. If goods, wares, and merchandise are manufactured or produced from the goods, wares, and merchandise, or any of them, included in or covered by any warehouse receipt, or included in or covered by any security given under the last preceding section, while so covered, the bank holding such warehouse receipt or security shall hold or continue to hold such goods, wares, and merchandise during the process and after the completion of such manufacture or production, with the same right and title, and for the same purposes and upon the same conditions, as it held or could have held the original goods, wares, and merchandise.

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2. All advances made on the security of any bill of lading or warehouse receipt, or of any security given under the last preceding section, shall give to the bank making the advances a claim for the repayment of the advances on the goods, wares, and merchandise therein mentioned, or into which they have been converted, prior to and by preference over the claim of any unpaid vendor, provided that such preference shall not be given over the claim of any unpaid vender who had a lien upon the goods, wares, and merchandise at the time of the acquisition by the bank of such warehouse receipt, bill of lading, or security, unless the same was acquired without knowledge on the part of the bank of such lien.

HOW THE LAW PROTECTS THE BANKS.

The law puts the banks in a position to be of great service to the business interests of Canada and at the same time protects their advances. If a bank lends money to a wholesaler or to a manufacturer it practically becomes owner of all the goods in his establishment. Yet the borrower is in no wise embarrassed, for he has the same right to buy and sell that he would have if he were under no obligation to the bank. If at any time, however, he adopts a policy of which the bank disapproves, or if the course of his business indicates that something is wrong, his bank may take immediate possession of his stock of goods. On account of the importance of this class of advances the law sets forth in detail the form of note or contract which the borrower must sign, as follows:

SCHEDULE C.

In consideration of an advance of ----- dollars made by the ----- Bank of A. B., for which the said bank holds the following bills or notes (describe the bills or notes, if any) [or, in consideration of the discounting of the following bills or notes by the ----- bank for A. B. (describe the bills or notes)], the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned below are hereby assigned to the said bank as security for the payment on or before the ----- day of ----- of the said advance, together with interest thereon at the rate of ----- per centum per annum from the ----- day of ----- (or, of the said bills or notes, or renewals thereof, or substitutions therefor, and interest thereon, or as the case may be).

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This security is given under the provisions of section eighty-eight of the bank act, and is subject to the provisions of the said act.

The said goods, wares, and merchandise are now owned by -----, and are now in the possession of -----, and are free from any mortgage, lien, or charge thereon (or as the case may be), and are the following (description of goods assigned).

Dated, etc.

(N. B.—The bills or notes and the goods, etc., may be set out in schedules annexed.)

A bank's lien upon property accepted as security for a loan, or covered by a bailee or warehouse receipt or a bill of lading, is superior to that of any vendor unless the vendor's claim was known to the bank when it accepted the goods or documents as security. If a debt is not paid when due the goods put up as security may be sold by the bank at public auction within ten or thirty days after notice has been sent by mail to the pledger. The bank, however, can not acquire this hold on the property of a borrower unless the security is given at the time the loan is negotiated. A bill of lading or warehouse receipt acquired by a bank as supplementary security for a loan gives it no special rights or powers.

BANKS SILENT PARTNERS IN INDUSTRY.

These provisions of the law contribute greatly to the strength of the assets of Canadian banks. A large part of their so-called commercial paper is secured practically by title to goods in warehouses, factories, and wholesale stores. Such security is more saleable than stocks and bonds, and paper having such security back of it is therefore better banking paper than notes secured by stock-market collateral. So far as would seem possible the Canadian bank act makes merchandise of all kinds a sort of collateral security for bank advances. It assumes that

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if a bank advances capital for the conduct of a business it should have a claim upon all the assets of the business and upon all goods as they come and go in the course of trade. No matter how a merchant's stock may change in character, it all belongs to his bank in case he fails to take up his paper or meet his engagements. In the same way a manufacturer's stock of goods, the raw material and the finished products, no matter how they change from day to day and month to month, will become the property of his bank if he fails to pay his note. The law practically makes every bank a silent partner in many wholesale and manufacturing businesses and gives it many rights which no ordinary silent partner can acquire. It has the effect naturally of making bankers keep a close eye upon business conditions as well as upon the affairs of their individual borrowers. Canadian bankers are interested in the lumber market, in the prices of metals, in changes in the tariff, and in the acquisition of foreign markets for Canadian manufactures and products, even as the Wall street banker is interested in the prices of stocks and bonds. He is in a sense the owner of merchandise of all kinds, and both trade and financial news have equal significance to him.

The law contains a number of other important provisions. A bank, for example, must not make a loan secured by the pledge of shares of its own capital stock. If it makes loans to any directors or officers of the bank, the amount of such loan must be reported each month to the government. No general manager or other employee of the bank can vote at a meeting of the stockholders. The bank must not pay dividends in excess of 8 per cent unless it has a rest or surplus equal to 30 per cent of its

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paid-up capital. It shall not hypothecate its notes. It shall not buy and sell goods, nor shall it make advances upon real property as security. It may acquire title to real estate and other immovable property, but can not hold such property for a period exceeding seven years, except that which is needed for its own business.

A CUSTOMER'S LINE OF CREDIT.

These legal safeguards are not the most important sources of strength to the assets of a Canadian bank. No matter how carefully a law may be framed, it can not prevent bad banking if the system under which the law is applied is unscientific or if the bankers themselves are not keenly alive to all the risks inherent in their business. In Canada the banks are managed by men whose long experience in the business has taught them to avoid certain banking practices that are in vogue in other countries. Realizing how important is the relation between a bank and its customer, they believe that this relation should be made as intimate and helpful as possible. Among Canadian bankers, therefore, it is part of the law and gospel of banking that a bank is entitled to full knowledge of the financial condition and business operations and prospects of its customers. Hence a bank insists that its customers shall rely entirely upon itself, that they shall make a full statement of their affairs at least once a year, and that they shall begin each year with a clean slate.

As a result of this policy a business man in Canada deals exclusively with one bank. Once a year he arranges with his bank for a line of credit and learns exactly the amount of paper he will be able to discount. If he happens to

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need less than he anticipated, he will not exhaust the credit allowed by the bank and will pay interest, of course, only upon such portion of the bank's funds as he actually utilizes. If, on the other hand, his business is unexpectedly large, giving opportunity to make bigger profits and creating the need for more capital, he will find the bank ready to increase his line of credit, provided the manager is satisfied that business conditions and prospects warrant expansion. Under no circumstances, however, must the customer of a bank seek to raise funds elsewhere unless he first gets the consent of his bank. If he sells his notes in the open market, he must do it with the full knowledge of his bank or run the risk of being placed upon the "black list."

THE "ONE-BANK" POLICY.

This "one-bank" policy is so thoroughly a part of the Canadian system that a merchant would find it very difficult, having exhausted his credit at one institution, to get a favorable hearing at another. The very first question put to him would be, "Where have you been keeping an account, and why do you wish to make a change?" If his answers were not satisfactory, the manager of the second bank would either decline outright to help him or get in touch with officers of the bank with which he had been doing business.^a

^a A general manager of a large bank gave his views of the one-bank policy as follows: "In the States the banks are not large enough to furnish all the credit accommodations needed by the larger firms and corporations. So such concerns are forced to raise funds by selling their commercial paper through note brokers. This paper must be paid when due, and in panicky times, there being less demand for the paper, the concerns are denied credit when they need it the worst. Consequently solvent firms

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The effect of this policy upon the quality of the bank assets is undeniable. The bulk of the paper held by Canadian banks bears the signatures of men whose business affairs and financial status and general credit have long been well known to the managers. They feel morally certain that the same signatures are not in the portfolios of other banks. The manager of a bank knows the extent to which each borrower's credit has been extended. He knows not merely what his assets and liabilities were when he made application for credit, but has every reason to believe that he knows all the obligations he has assumed since that date.

As one would naturally expect, there is very little commercial paper floating about in the Canadian money market. The bill broker is unknown. Wholesalers and manufacturers, unless shipping to foreign countries, do not draw upon their customers. If credit is granted, it takes the form of a book account or of a promissory note.

The promissory notes received by a manufacturer or wholesaler are deposited with his bank. The book accounts under ordinary conditions remain entirely at the disposal of the business, but in extraordinary cases,

have been pushed to the wall. In Canada it would be a disgrace to a bank if it should force a creditor into an assignment just because he happened at the time to be hard up, through a panic or otherwise, and then have it proved that the firm was really solvent all the time.

"When a firm does all of its banking business with one bank or, if it is a very large firm, with two or more banks who work in harmony, the bank or banks will not allow a line of credit which will make the firm insolvent in case of an ordinary depreciation of values or partial failure of some new expansion.

"By having all of a firm's business we can and do safely make loans that would make the hair of a banker across the line stand on end."

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when the situation is not satisfactory, or if additional credit at the bank is desired, an assignment of the book accounts to the bank may be required.^a

During the harvest season heavy drafts are made upon the resources of the banks to provide for the movement of the grain crops of the West. In its advances of money for this purpose the law makes it possible for a bank always to have abundant security. Under

^a The head of a large wholesale house in Montreal talked as follows about his firm's dealings with the banks: "We, like many other firms, have two lines of credit. One is our single-name paper up to a certain amount. All in excess of that is secured by trade paper. By the banks getting so much of this trade paper and of the drafts, it can keep in close touch with a firm's business, not only with ours, but with our customers' as well. We discount a customer's paper. He also has the paper discounted which he gives to other wholesalers and manufacturers. If he is straining his credit, the bank is in a good position to know it and to warn us.

"The accounts of some of the largest firms or corporations are often divided between two banks. In this case the two banks work in harmony and they keep in touch with the total debts of the firm by working together.

"Some of our merchants and manufacturers thought at the time of the panic of 1907 that the banks were too severe on them, but looking backward they all now think that in view of the extent of the panic and the conditions that followed, the banks gave them all the assistance they could have expected.

"In our line of business we draw drafts on our customers for from thirty to one hundred and thirty days. These we discount at our bank and deposit as cash. The bank then forwards drafts through its branches, and after they have been accepted by the customers, holds them for maturity. In this way the bank has both us and the customer on the paper, although they have to be vigilant in the matter of presenting for acceptance and for collection at maturity.

"Our business a few years ago was conducted more on a credit basis than it is now. We then gave two to six months. However, as the banking facilities have increased throughout the country, commercial credit has been contracting.

"Our business is facilitated because warehouse receipts may be given on material in the borrower's own yard, which may be put up as collateral. If the note is not paid at maturity the material back of the receipt may be taken as easily by the bank as though the warehouse receipt was from one of the public warehouses in the States."

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section 88 of the bank act the buyer makes assignment to his bank of the grain purchased. When the grain is delivered to a railroad, the bill of lading becomes the property of the bank. When it reaches Port Arthur, or some other distributing point, and is stored in an elevator, the bank receives a warehouse receipt in exchange for the bill of lading; and when shipment is made to New York, to Montreal, or to Europe, the bank receives on surrendering the warehouse receipt the shipper's draft on the consignee, the bill of lading, and other documents. Throughout the entire transaction, from the purchase from the farmer to the final sale to the eastern consumer, the bank practically has title to all agricultural products which are being moved by means of its funds.

LOANS TO FARMERS.

The branches of Canadian banks in agricultural districts quite commonly lend assistance to farmers. They do not make a practice of taking mortgages on farm property, but lend outright on the farmer's credit, depending for their security upon his character as a man and ability as a farmer, and often as well upon a neighbor's indorsement. Farmers' paper ranks high among the Canadian bankers and constitutes a considerable proportion of the assets of some of the banks. The banks, of course, do not undertake to supply the farmer with anything more than working capital. They do not help him pay for his land and buildings, but they do let him have at least part of the money he needs for tools, wages, seed, stock, etc. Despite the fact that these advances are unsecured by mortgage, the banks suffer very little loss on farm paper.

CHART I.—NET LIABILITIES AND CURRENT LOANS IN CANADA, 1906-1909.

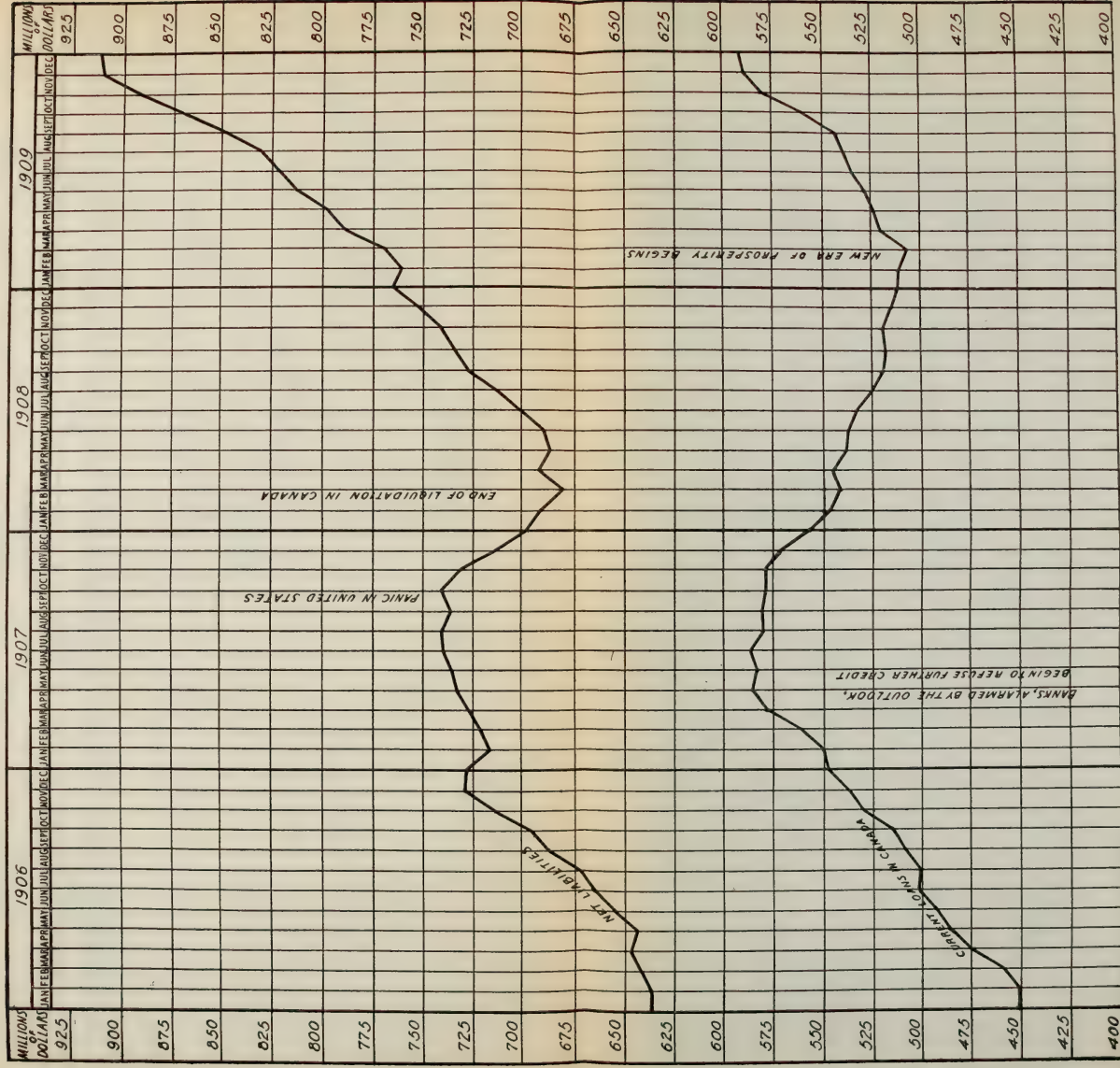
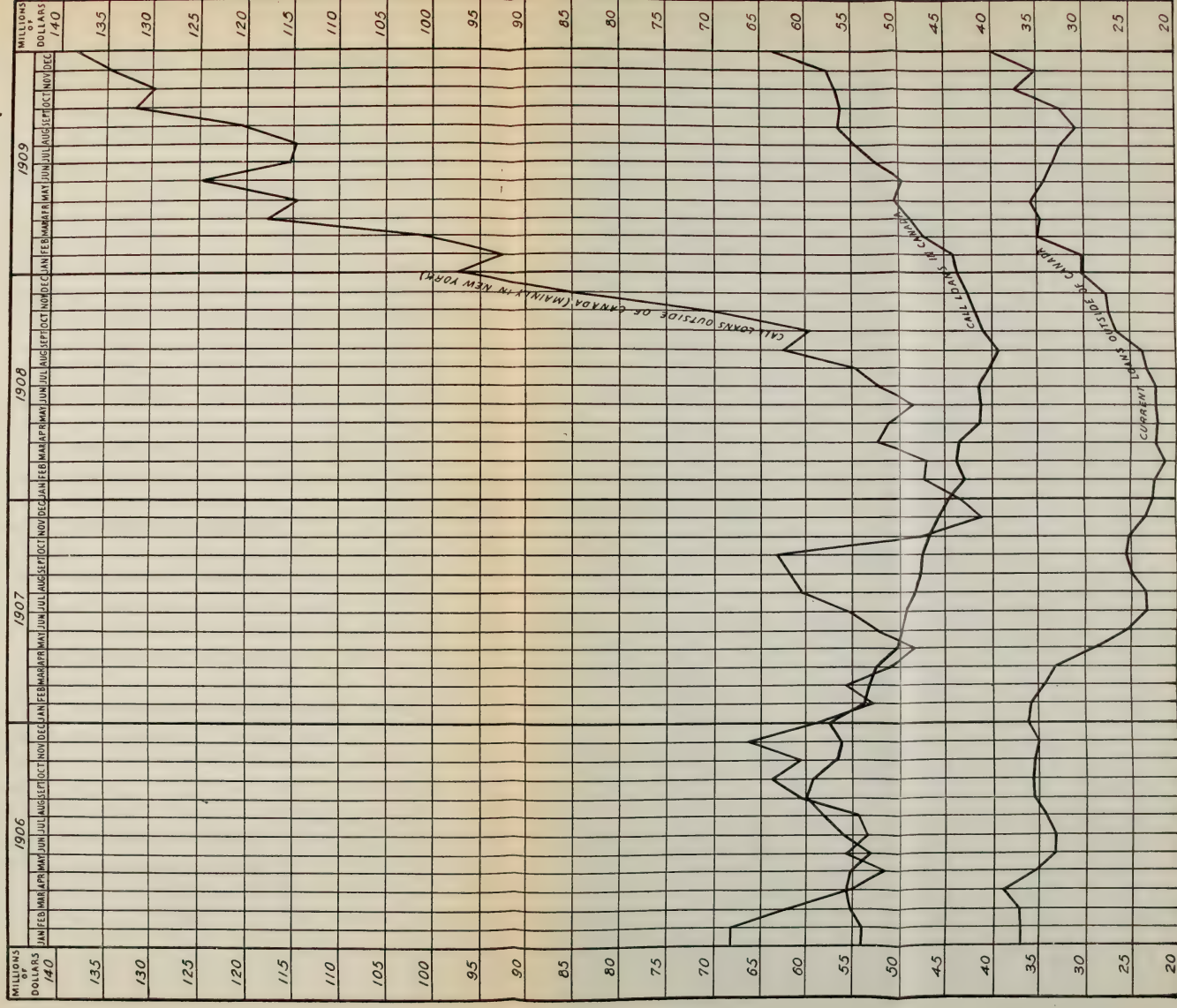


CHART II.—CALL LOANS IN CANADA AND ELSEWHERE, AND CURRENT LOANS OUTSIDE CANADA,
1906-1909.



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CALL LOANS IN CANADA AND ELSEWHERE.

After "current loans in Canada" the next largest item among the assets is "call and short loans elsewhere than in Canada." For example, this item in October, 1909, amounted to \$130,000,000, while the current loans in Canada were \$580,000,000. The call loans outside of Canada consist mainly of loans in the New York market and are as a rule secured by collateral easily convertible into cash. These loans are regarded by Canadian bankers as equivalent to cash and are figured by them as part of their reserve. Only the larger banks make a practice of loaning on call in New York. In October, 1909, for example, the Bank of Montreal's call loans outside of Canada amounted to over \$77,000,000, which was about 70 per cent of the total for all the banks. Indeed, this bank's call loans outside of Canada during this month were only about one and one-half million dollars less than its current loans in Canada. The Canadian Bank of Commerce during the same month had \$19,000,000 loaned on call outside of Canada and \$72,000,000 invested in current loans in Canada. The Bank of British North America had \$9,000,000 on call outside of Canada; the Merchants' Bank, \$7,389,836; and the Bank of Nova Scotia, \$4,000,000. The call loans of these five banks amounted to over 90 per cent of the total. During that month 14 of the banks had no funds whatever invested on call outside of Canada.

The item of "call and short loans on stocks and bonds in Canada" is relatively unimportant. In October, 1909, it amounted to only \$56,996,065 and was pretty evenly distributed among the different banks, except that no such

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loans whatever were reported by the Bank of Montreal. These are not call loans in the New York sense of the word. The market for securities in Canada is narrow and inactive, and Canadian bankers realize that a demand loan secured by the stock or bonds of a Canadian corporation can not be realized on promptly without considerable sacrifice on the part of the lender.

A demand note in Canada, as in most of the smaller cities in the United States, means merely that the bank has a right to call for payment at any time; that the borrower will pay when called if he can, and that if he can not take up the note immediately, the bank will give him such time as may be necessary for raising the money. This item of call loans in Canada, therefore, is not subject to such great fluctuations as the item "call loans elsewhere." The rate of interest on call loans is always a trifle lower than the rate on commercial discounts. Consequently, when there is an increasing demand for money on time, borrowers on call are less welcome at the banks and the amount of call loans in Canada is quite likely to decline. For example, throughout 1906 the amount of current loans in Canada, which includes time loans and commercial discounts, was steadily on the increase. The total rose from \$450,000,000, January 1, 1906, to \$585,000,000, April 1, 1907. Here was a gain of \$135,000,000. During this same period the amount of call loans in Canada rose from \$55,000,000, January 1, 1906, to \$60,000,000 in August of that year, and then almost steadily declined, having been less than \$50,000,000 April 1, 1907.^a

^a Charts I and II on pages 46-47 show changes in the different classes of loans during the four years 1906-1909.

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AS FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS.

That the chartered banks of Canada are financial as well as commercial institutions is evidenced by their holdings of stocks and bonds. In October, 1909, they held of railway and industrial stocks and bonds \$51,000,000, of municipal bonds \$21,000,000, and of Dominion and provincial government securities \$13,000,000; total \$85,000,000. These securities represent partly an investment carried as a secondary reserve and partly a business carried on for the benefit of their customers. In Canada the demand for long-time investments is not large, but whatever market there is for securities is mainly in the hands of the chartered banks. An investor seeks the advice of a bank manager and often is able to obtain from him securities which satisfy his needs. The banks do not publish a list of their holdings, but it is generally taken for granted that they carry only gilt-edge securities. If a customer desires to obtain second or third rate securities, being eager for a high rate of return, a bank can accommodate him, not by selling him out of its own stock, but by negotiating the purchase of the desired securities in New York or London.

As the wealth in Canada increases and idle capital accumulates in excess of its immediate needs, this financial side of the business of Canadian banks will doubtless expand. It may, indeed, during the next generation or two greatly expand and become an important feature of the chartered banks. They are in a position to take care of the business as it develops and will doubtless be able to prevent the establishment of any purely financial banking houses in Canada.

CHAPTER V.

LIABILITIES.

The liabilities of Canadian banks, like those of commercial banks in Great Britain and the United States, furnish a fairly correct index to the expansion of the country's credit. Since the Canadians, like other Anglo-Saxons, make free use of the check book in the settlement of both business and private accounts, any increase of bank loans and discounts is usually attended by a corresponding increase in deposits. When a Canadian business man discounts his note at his bank he almost invariably leaves the proceeds on deposit with the bank. As he makes his payments by check his own deposit account declines, but the bank accounts of his creditors increase, so that the net result of borrowing in Canada is an increase in the total of bank deposits. Consequently, in good times, when the banks are freely extending credit, the deposits grow, and in periods of dullness and liquidation they decline. A growth of deposits, therefore, is commonly accepted as an indication of business and industrial activity.

Bank notes constitute the second important liability. The amount of these in circulation, as will be shown later in this chapter, has little relation to general business conditions or to the amount of loans and discounts.

THREE KINDS OF DEPOSITS.

Deposits by the public are of three kinds—deposits payable on demand, deposits payable after notice (usu-

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ally ten to fifteen days), and deposits payable at a fixed date. The deposits payable after notice are commonly known as savings bank deposits, and are accepted in sums of \$1 and upward, interest being allowed on minimum monthly balances. Many of the banks, if not all, permit a limited use of the check book by depositors in their savings departments. The deposits payable at a fixed date are technically known as "time deposits" and are represented by deposit certificates. In recent years the banks have paid 3 per cent per annum on both the "time" and the savings bank deposits. In the monthly bank statement these two classes of deposits are reported under the single head of "deposits by the public payable after notice or on a fixed day," and are commonly known as the "time deposits." On January 31, 1909, these deposits amounted to \$443,170,532, but the returns do not show how much of this sum consisted of deposits in the savings department and how much of "time" deposits payable at a fixed date. As the two classes of deposits are quite different in character, one being much like a current account subject to check, the other being comparatively fixed or permanent, it would seem worth while to report them in separate columns.

In Canada the funds of savings bank depositors, who are usually people having no immediate use for their money, contribute directly toward the furtherance of trade and industry, whereas in the United States, where such depositors put their money into savings banks, it is quite commonly loaned out upon the security of real estate and corporation mortgages. The time deposits in Canada are almost double the demand deposits. For instance, in

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October, 1909, the time deposits amounted to \$481,000,000 while the demand deposits equaled only \$251,000,000. It must not be inferred, however, that the whole of this \$481,000,000 would have found its way into savings banks had Canada a banking system like that of the United States. This sum really represents funds which in the United States would be distributed among the commercial banks, the trust companies, and the savings banks. A considerable proportion of Canadian time deposits consists of money belonging to business men, and is quite as likely to be used in the furtherance of business enterprise as are any of the funds which stand to the credit of demand depositors. If a business man in Canada has temporarily a large balance in his bank and realizes that he will not need the money for several months, he will either arrange for its entry as a time or savings bank account, or for the payment of interest on his balance as a current account. Of course, the bankers do not encourage this practice, nor can it be indulged in by a depositor who is also a borrower. Depositors of the class who are paid a small rate of interest—usually 2 per cent—by national and state banks in the United States, usually have savings department accounts in Canada and get 3 per cent.

SAVINGS DEPOSITS ALWAYS PAID ON DEMAND.

On account of the fact that the time or savings bank deposits contain such a large proportion of money likely to be needed in business at any time, the banks regard both classes of deposit as being essentially the same form of liability. Practically all the deposit liabilities of a Canadian bank are payable on demand, although payment

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on two-thirds of them at the present time can not legally be demanded until after notice. Custom has made it imperative that a Canadian bank shall pay any and all of its depositors on demand. For any bank to refuse to let a depositor have his money when he calls for it would be regarded by the public as an acknowledgment of weakness. Certainly no Canadian bank would take the risk of making the experiment.

Canadian bankers feel that 3 per cent is too high a rate of interest to pay depositors. This rate is a matter of tacit agreement among the banks and no single bank can afford to lower it, for such action would cause it a loss of business. On the other hand, if any bank, hoping to increase its deposits, should offer to pay $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent or 4 per cent, its conduct would be looked upon with grave disapproval by its competitors. Some of the new banks in recent years have obtained business in this manner and have been severely criticised by the managers of the older institutions.

SAVINGS DEPOSITORS NOT PROPERLY REWARDED.

To an outsider it would seem that the savings bank depositor in Canada is not generously treated. In the United States he gets 4 per cent on his savings even in the large cities. In Canada, a country where real estate mortgages yield from 7 to 9 per cent and the bonds of new corporations are selling at prices giving the investor a higher return than he can get in the United States, it is certain that a real savings bank could well afford to pay depositors 4 per cent. It is doubtless true that 3 per cent is a higher rate of interest than most of the savings depositors in the

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chartered banks have a right to expect. A large part of these deposits are not savings deposits at all. Nevertheless it is doubtful if the banks would be justified in a reduction of the rate.

The right solution of the problem seems to lie in another direction, namely, in the making of a sharper distinction between demand and savings deposits. The funds received from both classes of depositors should not be treated alike. The money of savings bank depositors should be invested in bonds and mortgages and then could be made to yield a net return of over 5 per cent. If the depositors were not allowed to check upon their accounts they would be a source of such little expense to a bank that it could easily afford to pay them interest at the rate of 4 per cent. At the present time the banks are paying 3 per cent interest on money which they are lending to commercial borrowers and for the care of which they are maintaining an expensive force of clerks. Depositors who have checking accounts might be allowed 2 per cent on large balances, but out-and-out savings depositors, people who make no use of the check book, are certainly entitled to a 4-per-cent rate in a country where investment capital is as fruitful as it is in Canada.

Strictly speaking, the savings departments of the Chartered Banks are not savings banks, for they do not pretend to devote their time funds to long-time investments. The amount of securities held by the banks is never equal to the amount of time deposits. For example, in October, 1909, the deposits payable at a fixed date or after notice amounted to \$480,000,000, against \$86,000,000 invested in securities. The banks in the use of funds at their dis-

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posal make no distinction between the funds received from the different classes of depositors. Every depositor's money goes into the bank's general fund, most of which is loaned on short-time paper to merchants and manufacturers. Thus in October, 1909, when the deposits payable on demand amounted to only \$251,000,000, the current loans stood at \$580,000,000.

A thorough reorganization of the savings departments of the chartered banks, to equip them for the real business of a savings bank, would not be possible without an amendment of the bank act, which now prohibits them from loaning money upon real estate or upon the security of real-estate mortgages. It is generally believed that this prohibition is commonly evaded by the banks through the acceptance of such mortgages as "additional security" after loans have been made. A savings bank, of course, must have the legal right to accept such security.^a

NO BANKERS' BANK.

The indebtedness of banks to banks is not large in Canada. The branch system makes it unnecessary for banks to carry balances in other institutions located in the financial centers. Nearly every bank has a branch in either Montreal or Toronto and in these branches carries the major proportion of its cash reserve, so that branches in the far west or in the maritime provinces are always able to sell ex-

^a The government savings institutions, although paying the same rate of interest, are in no sense competitors of the chartered banks. The latter pay the depositor on demand; whereas the depositor can get money from the government only after several days' notice. Some of the loan companies accept savings deposits and pay interest at from 3 to 4 per cent per annum, permitting also a limited use of the check book. The total of such deposits in loan companies in 1909 was \$22,000,000.

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change on Montreal or Toronto. Canada has no bankers' bank. The Bank of Montreal, which is the largest bank in the Dominion, its assets being equal to about 25 per cent of the total, is often spoken of as the government bank because it is the largest government depositary, yet it holds a very small amount of funds belonging to other banks. In the statement of October, 1909, the balances due to other banks in Canada amounted to only \$5,269,216. Of this sum the Bank of Montreal held \$1,395,935, and the Merchants' Bank, \$1,309,008.

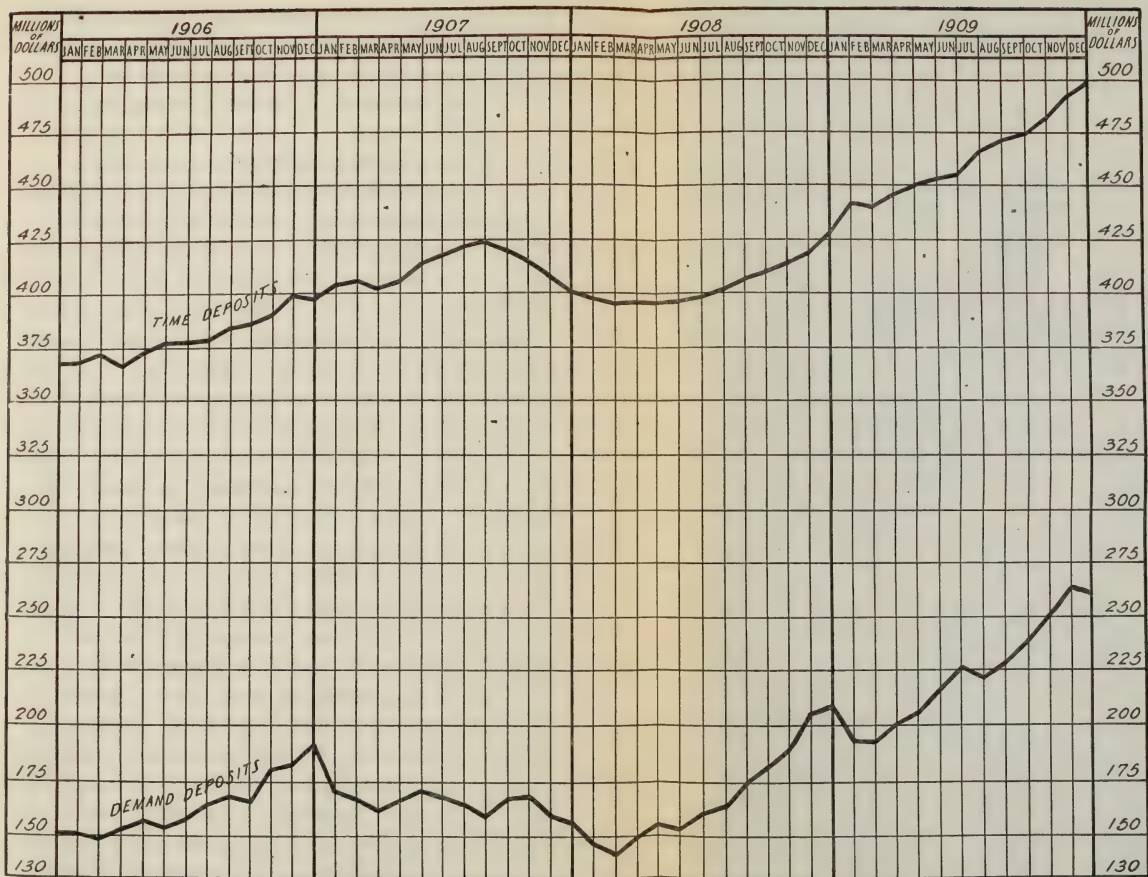
Chart III on the opposite page shows the changes in time and demand deposits during 1906-1909. It is interesting to note that demand deposits fell off much more than time deposits during the panic year 1907, and that both greatly increased during the two following years. The growth of deposits during 1909 was generally regarded in Canada as a most encouraging sign.

ISSUE AND REDEMPTION OF NOTES.

While the amount of notes that the chartered banks may issue is limited by the bank act to the amount of their paid-up capital,^a experience has proved that this legal limitation is only nominal and that the real and effective limit is imposed unconsciously and automatically by their customers and themselves. Each constantly seeks to increase its issue of notes to the legal limit, yet the combined efforts of all are never able to force into circulation more notes than the people need.

^a The only exception is the Bank of British North America. It operates under an old charter from Great Britain and its head office is in London. The stockholders are not subject to a double liability, and the bank can issue notes only to the extent of 75 per cent of its paid-up capital. It may exceed this limit by depositing gold or government bonds, and frequently does so.

CHART III.—TIME AND DEMAND DEPOSITS, 1906-1909.



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The reason why an excessive issue of bank notes in Canada is impossible is found in the two following facts:

1. Every bank must redeem its notes on demand in seven commercial centers in different parts of the Dominion.
2. The monetary circulation of Canada, exclusive of \$1 and \$2 bills, consists entirely of bank notes.

The redemption system is an automatic and effectual check against inflation. It is easier to get notes redeemed in Canada than it is to secure the payment of checks in the United States, for the notes are redeemable at different points throughout the Dominion and no exchange is ever charged. If a country merchant accumulates more currency than he desires to keep on hand, he deposits it, together with his checks and drafts, in the local branch of his bank. This branch immediately sorts out the notes of other banks and treats them as it does checks and drafts upon other banks, either sending them to the nearest redemption agency or using them as an offset in the local clearing house if the issuing banks have branches in the locality. The branches of a bank are not obliged to redeem the notes of the parent bank, but must accept them at par in the payment of all dues. Thus each bank is doing its utmost to bring about the redemption of the notes of other banks. At the same time it is paying out its own notes to all customers who ask for cash, seeking to bring its circulation up to the limit. As a result of these operations, two powerful forces are constantly at work, one putting notes into circulation, the other retiring them, and the people of Canada always have on hand just the amount of currency they need and no more. It is the people, not the

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banks, who determine how much the circulation of the banks shall be.

BANK NOTES HAVE NO COMPETITION.

The fact that the bank note has exclusive possession of the monetary field in Canada is most important. His ignorance of this fact is one reason why the average banker or business man in the United States has been unable to get a practical understanding of the Canadian system. Its significance is easily seen. If Canada, like the United States, had in circulation a lot of government notes in denominations of \$5, \$10, \$20, the Canadian banks would be able to increase their issues of bank notes almost without limit, for their new notes would simply take the place of the government notes, the latter going into bank reserves. The people of Canada in making deposits would not discriminate against bank notes, but would deposit the government paper quite as freely as the bank paper. As a result, the amount of the government paper in circulation would gradually decrease and the amount of bank notes would increase. The volume of Dominion notes in the vaults of the banks would expand, and as these notes are redeemable in gold the banks would feel justified in larger extension of their credit, so that an increase in deposits and current loans would ensue. Under such circumstances such freedom of issue as is enjoyed by the Canadian banks would doubtless result in inflation.

But such conditions do not exist in Canada. All the paper currency in the hands of the people, excepting \$1 and \$2 bills, is in the form of bank notes. There is no chance to substitute bank notes for government notes.

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Hence, if at any time business relaxes and the need for money among the people grows less, an increasing tide of bank notes flows into the banks. The people who bring these notes do not ask for money in exchange, for to them the notes are money. They take bank notes to the banks just as people in the United States take greenbacks and silver certificates—to be exchanged for a deposit credit or account.

ELASTICITY OF THE CIRCULATION.

The redemption system, besides making currency inflation impossible, results also in what is commonly called “elasticity,” by which is meant capacity to expand and contract in automatic response to the country’s need of currency. Such elasticity is desirable for the reason that it enables the banks to satisfy the mere currency needs of a country without increase of their liabilities or diminution of their power to lend.

Canada, like every other country, at certain seasons of the year makes use of more currency, or hand-to-hand money, than at other seasons. This currency is supplied by the banks. If they were not permitted to furnish it in the form of their own notes, they would be obliged to furnish it in the form of lawful or legal tender money, and would at the same time be compelled to restrict their loans in order that they might reduce their liabilities, the loss of the legal tender money having by so much reduced their cash reserve. Since the Canadian banks, however, meet the seasonal needs for currency by the issue of notes, their liabilities are not changed, for their deposits decline by as much as their notes increase. It is clear that if a de-

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positor draws \$1,000 from his bank and receives \$1,000 in the notes of the bank, the liabilities of the bank have not been affected. It has simply converted a deposit liability into a note liability. Its reserve of legal tender money having been untouched, it is under no necessity to reduce its loans. It follows that since a Canadian bank is able to supply its depositors' needs for cash with its own bank notes, it can do so without being compelled to lessen its usefulness to the community as a lender of money.

It is evident also that every bank will steadfastly pursue this policy of paying out its own notes and getting the others redeemed. If in the course of business it receives from its depositors the notes of other banks, it does not pay these out again, for they are convertible through the redemption agencies into legal tender money. The more of such money a bank has in its vaults, the stronger its position and the greater its power to lend. Every dollar of legal tender money that a Canadian bank can retain in its cash reserve, adds \$10 to its lending power, permitting the safe increase of its liabilities by the same amount.

That the redemption system contributes to the acceptability and elasticity of the Canadian bank note more than any other factor must be evident to anyone who considers how the system would operate if the efficient redemption machinery were lacking. Every bank must redeem its notes in seven different cities, and no bank is obliged to accept the notes of other banks either on deposit or in payment of dues to it. Yet on account of the ease with which notes are redeemed, every bank accepts at par the notes of all other banks exactly as if they were legal tender,

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and then sends them to the nearest redemption center to be exchanged for gold coin or Dominion notes, or to be used as a credit offset in the redemption of its own notes. It is this ease of redemption which gives the circulation its elasticity and makes it immediately responsive to every fluctuation in the needs of business. If the notes were redeemable only at the place of issue, which is usually the head office of the bank, they would frequently be at a discount in remote parts of the Dominion and would often stay in circulation among the people for a period longer than necessary. A tradesman does not like to deposit money in a bank at a discount if he can circulate it at par among his customers. Just as the notes of country banks before the establishment of the Suffolk banking system in New England filled the channels of circulation in Boston, so in Canada, without its present redemption system, the notes of each bank would doubtless very soon find lodgement in distant communities and remain in circulation in excess of the real needs of the people. Canada would, indeed, have an abundance of currency, but it would be exposed to all the risks of depreciation and the banks would be tempted to adopt schemes for the increase of their circulation which in the end would prove fatal to the soundness of the currency.

The Canadian bank note might still be good even though it were not a first lien upon the assets of a bank, or even if its payment were not in a measure guaranteed by all the banks, or if stockholders were not subject to a double liability. Indeed, all three of these safeguards might disappear and yet the Canadian bank note remain a safe, elastic, and acceptable medium of exchange. But

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if the redemption system were destroyed, Canada would very soon be filled with a banking circulation in varying stages of depreciation.

NO LIMIT OF ISSUE REALLY NECESSARY.

Theoretically there is no reason why any limit should be fixed upon the amount of notes which a bank may issue. Even though a bank has a monopoly of issue in a country—like the Bank of France—it nevertheless is unable to expand its circulation beyond the people's needs. Such a bank, unless it should adopt a reckless policy of lending which would bring ruin quickly upon itself, can exercise very little influence upon the amount of currency in circulation. In a country like Canada, where several banks are issuing currency, no single institution can enlarge its issue of notes beyond the needs of its own customers. If it should endeavor to do this by lending freely to customers who promised to use its notes in different parts of the country, the effort would be futile. The notes would quickly find their way into the branches of other banks and be sent in for redemption.

Like most other countries, however, Canada has placed a limit on the note-issuing privilege, fixing it at the amount of a bank's paid-up capital. While there is no scientific necessity that such a limit be fixed in order to prevent the over-issue of notes, nevertheless there are other considerations which justify it. It is an indirect method of compelling banks to increase their capitalization *pari passu* with the growth of their business. Inasmuch as the capital of a bank is the stockholder's contribution

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toward its assets, it is exceedingly desirable that this contribution be made as large as possible, for, other things being equal, the strength of a bank varies with the amount of its capital. It is not unreasonable, therefore, to require that banks in return for the useful note-issuing privilege should be required to keep their capital resources large.

When a Canadian bank has reached the limit of its note issue—which has rarely happened—it begins at once to treat the notes of other banks very much as if they were its own. Instead of going to the expense of sending them in for redemption, it uses them as counter money, paying them out to depositors in response to their calls for cash. If all the banks in Canada should issue notes up to the limit, as some of them did during the exciting months of 1907, and if the current rate of interest did not warrant the issue of the taxed notes provided for by the amendment of 1908, the note circulation would immediately lose its elasticity. As further expansion would be impossible, the banks would have to meet any increasing demand for currency by paying out gold and Dominion notes, thus depleting their reserves. Such a situation would doubtless lead to a sharp advance in the discount rate and to the importation of gold.

THE PRACTICAL LIMIT UNDER THE LEGAL.

It should be noted that the practical limit of note issue is about 10 per cent below the legal limit. The manager of a bank having a paid-up capital of \$1,000,000 begins to get nervous when his circulation equals \$900,000. His office may be in Montreal and his bank may have branches

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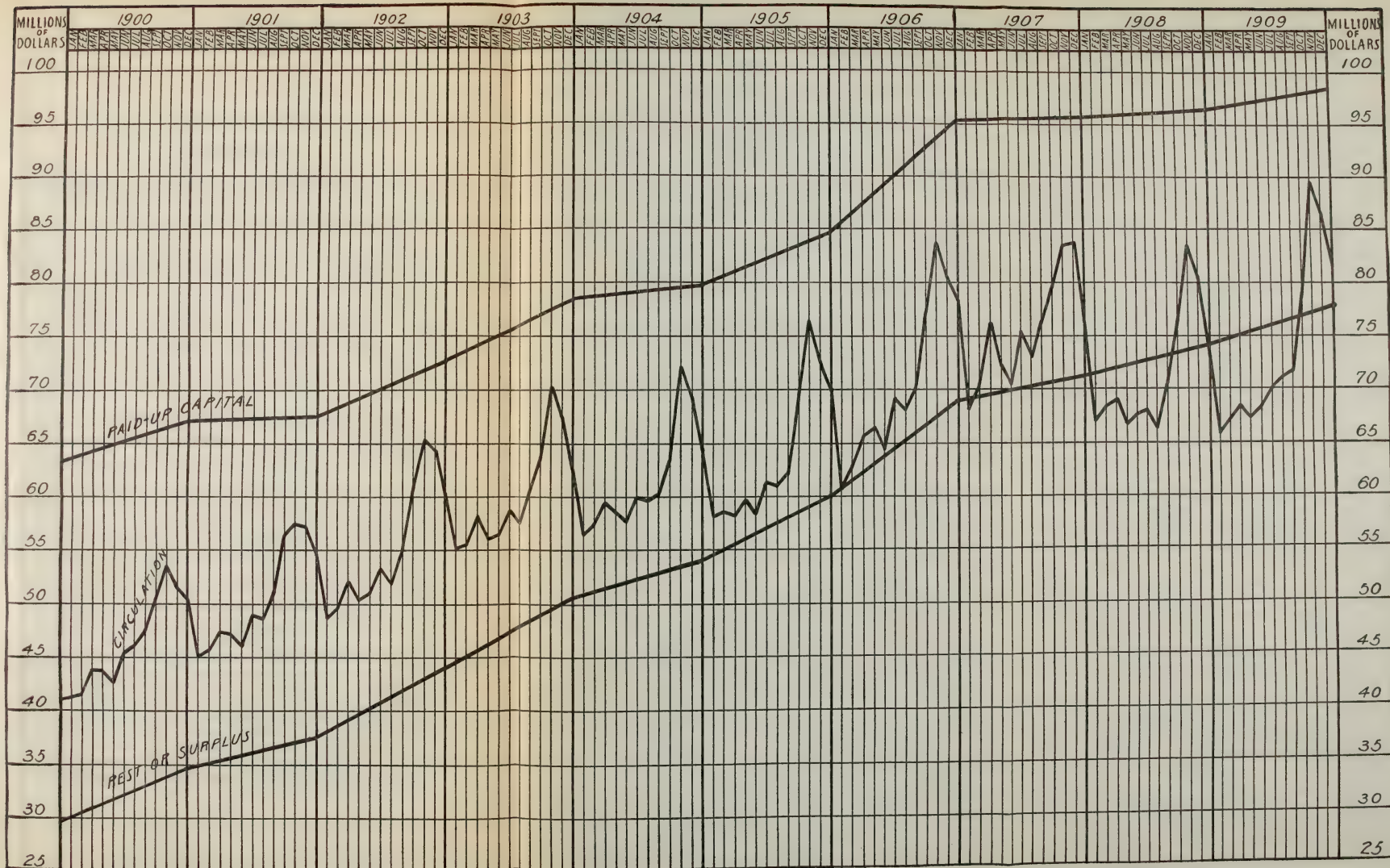
in the far East and in the far West and in the mining wilderness of the North. Some of these branches he can not reach by telegraph and some are distant a week by mail.^a He immediately sends warning to all the branches and cautions them against any large outgiving of notes and against entering into transactions which will be likely to lead to unusual demands for currency. On account of this situation, even in times of greatest pressure, the total issue of the banks is usually 10 per cent below the authorized limit.^b

Chart IV, on the opposite page, shows the circulation during the last ten years; also the comparative increase of the paid-up capital and the surplus. The reader will note that the amount of notes outstanding is invariably largest in November and smallest in February, and that the surplus has been increased at a more rapid rate than the capital.

^a Said a general manager in Montreal: "We have trouble at times keeping exactly within the limit, and have to keep about half a million under it. Our branches always have on hand a stock of notes which if they were all issued would run the total outstanding above the limit. When the total approaches the limit, I notify the branches not to issue above a certain amount, say \$10,000, without wiring me. It takes a week to hear from our Yukon branch."

^b The penalty for excessive issue of notes is severe. If the excess is less than \$1,000 the penalty equals the amount of the excess. If it is between \$1,000 and \$20,000 the penalty is \$1,000; if it is between \$20,000 and \$100,000, the penalty is \$10,000; between \$100,000 and \$200,000, penalty is \$50,000. If it exceeds \$200,000, the penalty is \$100,000. The fact that such large penalties overhang them explains why the maximum issue of Canadian bank notes is usually \$10,000,000 under the authorized limit.

CHART IV.—GROWTH OF CAPITAL, SURPLUS, AND CIRCULATION. 1900-1909.



CHAPTER VI.

THE RESERVE.

The subject of cash reserves ^a is disposed of in the bank act in two short paragraphs; the first providing that not less than 40 per cent of a bank's reserves shall be in Dominion notes, the second instructing the minister of finance to arrange for the delivery of Dominion notes to any bank in exchange for specie. As for the amount of cash reserve to be carried by a bank or its ratio to net liabilities, the law is silent. Every bank manager is free to keep his reserve at any figure which in his judgment is adequate.

There is no reason at present why the law should compel banks to hold Dominion notes. As these are practically gold certificates, the only apparent effect of the requirement, as banking operations enlarge, is to compel the Dominion government to increase its issue of notes and guard an increasing amount of gold coin. If the notes were mere credit instruments, their issue would be equivalent to an involuntary government loan and the requirement that they shall constitute 40 per cent of banking reserves would insure the permanence of the issue and save finance ministers from ever being worried over calls

^a The bank act uses the word "reserve" in two senses. Section 59 provides that a bank shall not pay a dividend at a rate higher than 8 per cent per annum unless its "rest or reserve fund" is equal to at least 30 per cent of its paid-up capital. The reference here is to what in the United States is called the "surplus." In section 60 the act mentions "cash reserves," meaning the amount of legal-tender money held by the banks. This is its ordinary use among bankers in Canada as well as in the United States.

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for their redemption. Since all notes in excess of \$30,000,000 are secured by a deposit of gold in the Dominion treasury, their issue in no way increases the revenues of the finance department. The 40 per cent requirement, as a matter of fact, is entirely unnecessary; the notes, being in large denominations, are preferred by bankers to gold and would be utilized by them even though the law did not require it.

To American bankers, trained under the national bank act, the failure of the Canadian law to prescribe a minimum reserve undoubtedly seems a dangerous oversight. To many these questions will doubtless arise: What is to prevent a Canadian bank from assuming liabilities in excess of its redemption capacity? How, indeed, does the Canadian banker know whether or no he is carrying a sufficient reserve? Does not the failure of the law to require a minimum reserve encourage the development of speculative banking and a perilous expansion of credit on an inadequate basis of coin?

In Canada neither among the bankers nor in business circles are questions of this sort ever raised. Canadian bankers and many business men know a good deal about the national banking system of the United States, but they do not hold it in high esteem. On the contrary, they express surprise that a resourceful and intelligent people should have been content for so many years with a banking system so cumbersome and irrational. In their opinion, a law which fixes a minimum reserve against deposits and forbids the issue of bank notes, except on the deposit of government bonds, makes safe and sound banking absolutely impossible.

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AMOUNT OF THE RESERVE FIXED BY EACH BANK.

It must not be supposed that the Canadian banks do not carry adequate reserves. On the contrary, every bank manager gives to this subject daily and most conscientious thought. To the Canadian banker the word "reserve" means a fund immediately available for the liquidation of liabilities. How much this fund ought to be depends altogether upon the amount and character of the liabilities to be protected. Theoretically, with respect to its time deposits, a Canadian bank is in the position of a savings bank and in order to be safe need not keep on hand for the liquidation of such deposits a very large amount of cash, but may rely upon investment securities to furnish whatever funds may be needed to satisfy unexpected calls from depositors. Practically, however, the Canadian bankers do not avail themselves of the privilege afforded by the law. All do not permit time depositors to check upon their accounts, but they do pay them on demand, and no Canadian bank would like to have it rumored that any of its depositors had ever had the slightest difficulty in obtaining funds when he wanted them. Apparently, therefore, all the deposits of a Canadian bank belong in the same class and are equally liable to become immediate claims upon the bank. As a matter of fact, however, this is not the case. The time depositor receives interest at the rate of 3 per cent under conditions which will cause him loss if he reduces his balance except on definite dates. A bank manager has learned by long experience when withdrawals of time deposits are to be

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expected and to what extent he can depend upon fresh deposits as an offset.

A Canadian bank manager, having before him the amount of time deposits and demand deposits, respectively, knowing the probable future needs of the various depositors, being in constant touch with branch managers both by wire and by letter, and having back of him information born of many years' experience, easily determines how much his bank's reserve ought to be in order to assure its safety. The law neither helps nor hinders him; it simply requires that the bank shall satisfy the demands of depositors in accordance with the terms of the contract and that it shall redeem its notes on demand. The public by force of custom expects a bank to do a little more than the law requires, for its credit is bound to suffer if it take advantage of its legal privilege to delay payment upon time deposits. The manager is a hired man, sworn to do his utmost to protect the credit of the bank, trained for many years in its service, familiar with its history and its policy, anxious to guard his own reputation and character against criticism. Under these circumstances it would be remarkable if he did not fix the amount of his bank's reserve nearer the ideal figure—if an ideal banking reserve is possible—than could possibly be done by a body of law-makers or of any other men outside the bank.

RESERVE COMPOSED OF FOUR ELEMENTS.

A Canadian banker thinks of a bank reserve as comprising four different kinds of assets: (1) Cash on hand, (2) cash balances in other banks, (3) call loans, and (4) securities.

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Strictly speaking, "cash reserve" means only the first, but a banker usually has in mind both the first and second when speaking of his "cash reserve." He keeps on hand a supply of cash, either gold or Dominion notes, more than ample for the settlement of daily balances at clearing houses. The counter demand for cash he knows by experience can be met almost entirely by the use of the bank's own notes. In order to be prepared for any emergency that may arise, such as a panic in Europe or in the United States, the failure of a large customer, the suspension of a bank, an unexpectedly adverse balance of trade, any of which events might cause a demand for gold for export, he keeps some money on deposit in banks outside of Canada, lends some on call in New York City, and invests some in securities easily marketed. All these funds are thought of as part of the "reserve."

Although the law is silent on the subject, there is a tacit understanding or agreement among the banks that in ordinary times the cash assets of a bank ought to equal 15 per cent of its liabilities and that at least 8 per cent should be in cash on hand, the remaining 7 per cent being in balances due from other banks.

From the American point of view the Canadian banks carry a very small amount of cash. For example, on January 1, 1906, it amounted to only \$61,000,000, whereas the net liabilities, notes as well as all deposits being included, amounted to \$610,000,000, the ratio of the cash on hand being only about 10 per cent. In November of the same year the cash on hand stood at \$75,000,000

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and the net liabilities at \$705,000,000, the ratio of cash to liabilities being still only a little over 10 per cent.

For many years the cash-on-hand reserve of the Canadian banks has averaged between 10 and 12 per cent of the net liabilities. Some banks constantly keep on hand a higher ratio, and others a lower. The ratio varies with the same bank at different times. At one time a bank may feel abundantly protected with a cash reserve of 9 per cent; at another time its managers may see occasion for holding a larger amount of cash. Again a period of business depression, by lessening the demand for money, may cause cash reserves to increase more rapidly than satisfactory investment can be found in call loans or securities. This situation arose in 1908, when the cash reserve increased from \$83,000,000 July 31 to \$97,000,000 December 31. On July 31 of that year deposits were reported at only \$568,000,000. By December 31 they had increased to \$640,000,000. During these months the ratio of cash to net liabilities exceeded 12 per cent, and in the case of many banks was much larger than was necessary. As a result the banks added to their credit balances in banks and agencies outside of Canada, thus getting a low rate of interest on part of their surplus funds and increased their call loans in New York.

CALL LOANS IN NEW YORK CITY.

New York City is the favorite call loan market, and several Canadian banks find it profitable to maintain branches or agencies there. In the eyes of a Canadian

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banker a call loan payable in New York City and secured by high-class collateral, is practically equivalent to cash on hand. In normal times he can convert the loans into money within twenty-four hours, adding to his cash on hand either by the sale of New York exchange or by an importation of gold. If times are panicky in New York and stock market prices are tumbling, the Canadian banker is among the first to get rid of all loans based on securities about which there is the slightest question. If the situation gets so bad that the New York banks decline to ship gold, as they did in 1907, the Canadian banks utilize their New York balances for the purchase of sterling bills and so transfer their accounts from New York to London, importing from Europe whatever gold they need.

The call loans in Canada the bankers do not rely upon as in any way equivalent to or as a substitute for a cash reserve. Call loans in Canada are really not payable on demand. The securities put up as collateral can not be quickly marketed without a sacrifice and bankers know very well that they can not rely on such loans as a means for increasing their cash in an emergency. Even though this were not the case, these loans could not be reckoned as a source of strength to the Canadian banking situation, for the payment of the domestic call loans would not add a dollar to the country's cash on hand. Its only effect, as events have often illustrated in a parallel situation in New York City, would be a reduction of bank deposits.

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INVESTMENT SECURITIES.

In their choice of investment securities the banks are not hampered by the law. They may purchase not only government and provincial bonds, but also the stocks and bonds of both Canadian cities and cities of foreign countries, and the stocks and bonds of domestic and foreign railways and industrial corporations. On January 1, 1907, the Canadian banks held securities as follows: Dominion and provincial government securities, \$10,300,000; municipal securities, \$20,000,000; railway and other bonds and stocks, \$46,000,000, making a total of about \$76,000,000. The fluctuations in the amount of total securities held are not great or frequent. When the banks need a larger supply of cash, they prefer, as a rule, to reduce their call loans in New York rather than to sell securities. During the three years 1906-1908 the total amount of securities held by the banks ranged from \$63,000,000 in March, 1906, to \$74,000,000 in December, 1908. During eighteen consecutive months of that period the amount varied by only \$1,000,000.

Bankers do not place much reliance upon securities as a part of the reserve. These constitute a sort of auxiliary reserve, on which the banks expect never to be forced to lean. But credit balances and call loans outside of Canada are "cash" to most Canadian bankers and are quite commonly included in what they call their cash reserve.

Some of the banks in calculating their reserve make a distinction between demand and time deposits, figuring that the time deposits are protected by the cash on hand

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and the time deposits by credit balances and call loans outside of Canada. The manager of one of the largest and most conservative banks said to the writer:

“We aim always to have on hand a cash reserve equal to $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the demand liabilities. We carry also a reserve of about 25 per cent of the time deposits in the form of funds in New York and London, either balances in banks or call loans. We consider this a kind of secondary reserve.”

Their call loans in New York subject the banks to considerable criticism. Some people assume that the money loaned in New York rightly belongs to Canadian industries, and that it would be loaned in Canada if only their bankers were not so eager to make “easy” money in Wall street. This criticism betrays ignorance of the nature of the Canadian banking reserve. If either the law or public opinion should prevent the banks from lending money in Wall street, Canadian borrowers would be no better off than now. The banks merely would be obliged to carry in their own vaults the money they now lend in New York. As their earnings would be less than now, quite possibly their equipment and facilities would also be less and the Canadian borrower not so well cared for as now.

The statistics furnished by the banks in their monthly returns to the government are shown in the following tables, which give the totals for the months of February and November, 1909.

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		February 28, 1909.	November 30, 1909.
	LIABILITIES.		
	Capital authorized	\$142,466,000	\$141,466,000
	Capital subscribed	\$98,294,000	\$98,960,000
	Capital paid up	\$96,160,000	\$98,046,000
	Amount of rest or reserve fund	\$74,490,000	\$77,868,000
	Rate per cent of last dividend		
1	Notes in circulation	\$67,348,000	\$86,391,000
2	Balance due to Dominion government after deducting advances for credits, pay lists, etc.	4,808,000	5,934,000
3	Balance due to Provincial governments	14,512,000	23,137,000
4	Deposits by the public payable on demand in Canada	192,969,000	264,286,000
5	Deposits by the public payable after notice or on a fixed day in Canada	441,391,000	493,254,000
6	Deposits elsewhere than in Canada	65,334,000	71,836,000
7	Loans from other banks in Canada secured, in- cluding bills rediscounted	5,347,000	4,520,000
8	Deposits made by and balances due to other banks in Canada	7,208,000	5,949,000
9	Balances due to agencies of the bank, or to other banks or agencies in the United King- dom	2,607,000	2,739,000
10	Balances due to agencies of the bank or to other banks or agencies elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom	3,337,000	3,559,000
11	Liabilities not included under foregoing heads..	5,753,000	6,998,000
	Total liabilities	810,614,000	968,603,000
	ASSETS.		
1	Specie	26,807,000	31,798,000
2	Dominion notes	67,270,000	71,511,000
3	Deposits with Dominion government for se- curity of note circulation	4,051,000	4,575,000
4	Notes and checks on other banks	25,346,000	43,609,000
5	Loans to other banks in Canada, secured, in- cluding bills rediscounted	5,108,000	4,421,000
6	Deposits made with and balances due from other banks in Canada	10,417,000	10,120,000
7	Balances due from agencies of the bank, or from other banks or agencies in the United Kingdom	10,523,000	18,078,000
8	Balances due from agencies of the bank, or from other banks or agencies elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom	25,950,000	25,624,000

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		February 28, 1909.	November 30, 1909.
	ASSETS—continued.		
9	Dominion and Provincial government securities.	\$10,240,000	\$12,840,000
10	Canadian municipal securities, and British or foreign or colonial public securities other than Canadian.	20,590,000	22,038,000
11	Railways and other bonds, debentures, and stocks.	49,349,000	49,916,000
12	Call and short loans on stocks and bonds in Canada.	47,555,000	57,876,000
13	Call and short loans elsewhere than in Canada.	101,444,000	134,837,000
14	Current loans in Canada.	507,350,000	590,292,000
15	Current loans elsewhere than in Canada.	35,055,000	35,358,000
16	Loans to the government of Canada.	5,000,000	
17	Loans to Provincial governments.	1,620,000	2,501,000
18	Overdue debts.	7,893,000	7,037,000
19	Real estate other than bank premises.	1,710,000	1,192,000
20	Mortgages on real estate sold by the bank.	549,000	631,000
21	Bank premises.	18,593,000	21,109,000
22	Other assets not included under the foregoing heads.	7,920,000	10,502,000
	Total assets.	990,340,000	1,155,865,000

It seems worth while to call attention to some of the items in these tables.

The item "Notes in circulation" was nearly \$20,000,000 larger in November than in February. The increase was due to the crop-moving need for additional currency, and is an annual occurrence. During the next two months the amount declined \$13,000,000.

The increase in deposits (liabilities Nos. 4 and 5) was due to the flow of money into Canada and to the great activity of trade and industry, which caused an expansion of "current loans" (assets No. 14). In other words, there was a gain in both cash and credit deposits.

"Loans from other banks in Canada" (liabilities No. 7) represent advances made to two banks in liquidation.

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Items 7 and 8 under "assets" indicate that the credit balances in London increased \$8,000,000, while those in New York were unchanged.

Call loans in Canada gained \$10,000,000, while call loans outside of Canada—mostly in New York City—gained \$33,000,000. On the other hand, in "current loans" there was practically no increase outside of Canada, but a gain of \$83,000,000 in Canada. Such figures mean good times in Canada.

ADEQUACY OF THE RESERVE.

In figuring the total reserve carried by the banks the items 4, 5 and 6 under "Assets" can not be included, although each individual bank might properly count them as part of its reserve. They are credits with other banks in the system, and are not a source of strength to the system as a whole. As they are counterbalanced by an equal indebtedness within the system, the net liabilities to the public are obtained by deducting these three items from "total liabilities." Thus we find that the net liabilities in February were \$769,740,000, and in November \$910,453,000.

The ratio to net liabilities of each element of the reserve is shown in the table below:

	February 28.	November 30.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Cash on hand	12.7	11.7
Credit balances in banks outside of Canada	4.7	4.8
Call loans outside of Canada	13.2	14.8
Securities	10.4	9.3
Total reserve	41.0	40.6

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Leaving out of account the securities, which are the least liquid element, the reserve stood at 30.6 per cent in February and at 31.3 per cent in November. The adequacy and immediate availability of a reserve of this size and kind has been well proved by experience. Some critics hold that the supply of gold is too small and that a real crisis in Canada would shake the foundations of banking credit. The situation certainly does not warrant such pessimism. Canada's banking reserve, securities excepted, consists of gold and of assets that can be turned into gold within a day. To be sure, if Great Britain and the United States should both suspend specie payments, Canada would suffer as one of their financial dependencies, but its banking system would stand a credit storm better than theirs, for it would be able more quickly and efficiently to adopt measures of protection and relief.

The bankers know very well that they can not afford to count New York and London funds as being money on hand. Clearing-house balances are apt to vary greatly in certain seasons, and a bank must be prepared at all times for the unusual and unexpected. Hence the banks carry a much larger cash reserve than seems necessary in ordinary times.^a It keeps them always prepared

^a "On account of our large number of branches and the different conditions they encounter in the different sections of the country," said a general manager to the writer, "we have to carry a cash reserve that seems to the outsider larger than is necessary. For example, when notes go out rapidly in a place like Winnipeg, they soon come back and have to be redeemed in gold, and actual cash is required at the western redemption points. It requires constant vigilance to keep proper cash balances. Balances in the Bank of England and in the banks of New York we can not count as cash at a redemption point. During the panic of 1907 we had nearly \$2,000,000 in London and New York, but we could not really count them as part of

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to meet emergency calls from redemption points and prevents local suspicion of their strength. It must be borne in mind that the public never comes in contact with any portion of the cash reserve. To most of a bank's customers its holdings of legal-tender money are a matter of indifference; so long as their checks and drafts are honored at the clearing house they are satisfied. But the banks must maintain their standing with one another. That is of first importance, and for that purpose money on call in New York and London is as good as money on hand.

Gold exports and imports are of small consequence in Canada. This is what one would naturally expect. As seasonal variations in the need for currency are taken care of by the elastic note circulation, no gold need be imported or exported on that account. Furthermore, when the banks increase their balances in New York and London, they do it by the remittance of exchange, not by the exportation of gold. The so-called balance of trade is against Canada, yet sterling bills are fairly plentiful as a result of the sale of Canadian securities in England. The output of

our cash reserve, for we could not have imported the gold without having caused foreign complications. The knowledge that we had the gold there did us practically as much good as to have had it here. We seldom import gold for our own use or merely for the profit of the transaction. Despite the fact that New York fell down during 1907, we should have had a pretty serious time if we had not had some money loaned out in New York before that panic. We knew that we could get the actual money at any time by selling sterling exchange. In fact, all our money loaned in London and New York is a kind of secondary reserve."

CHART V.—NET LIABILITIES AND TOTAL RESERVE, 1906-1909.

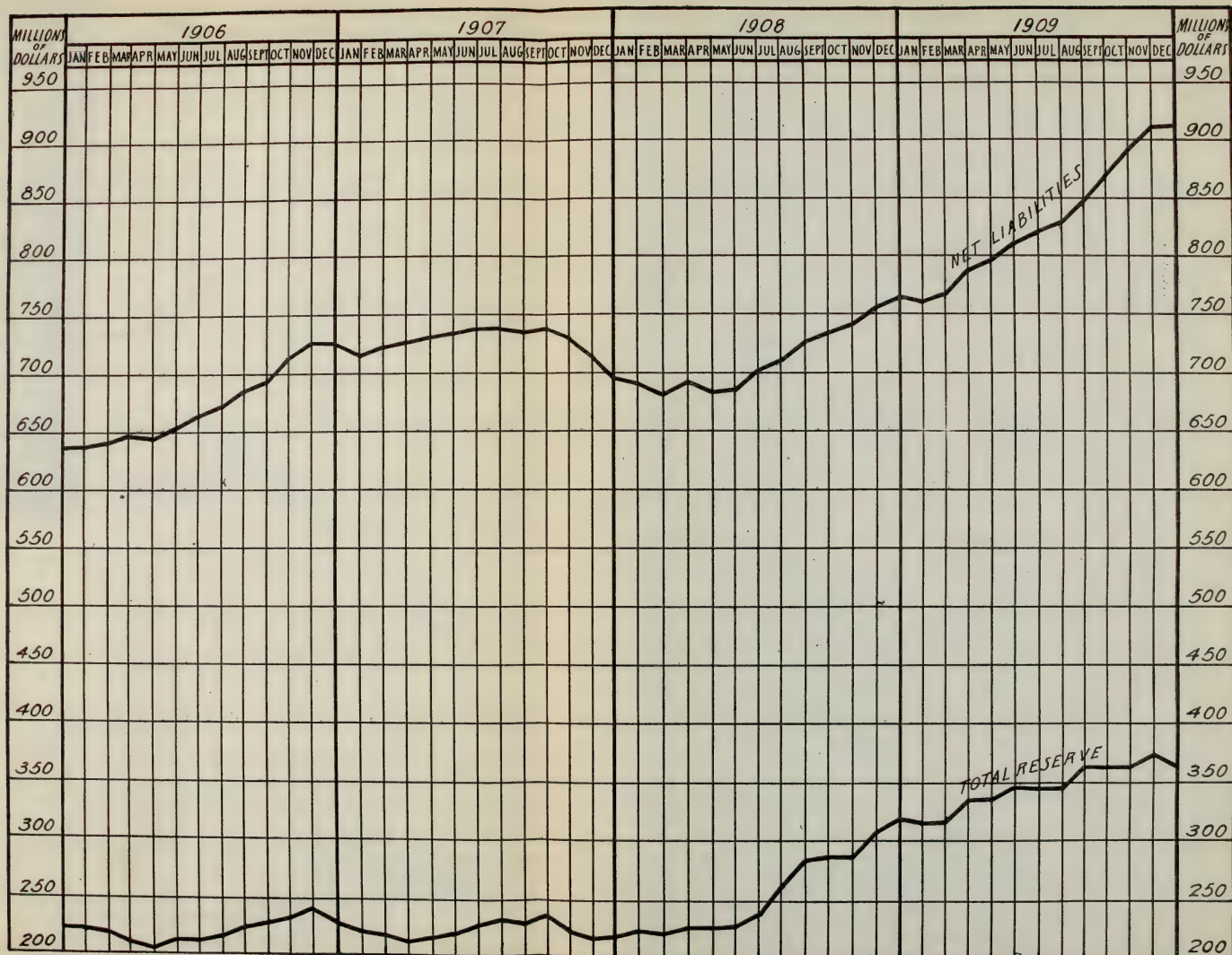
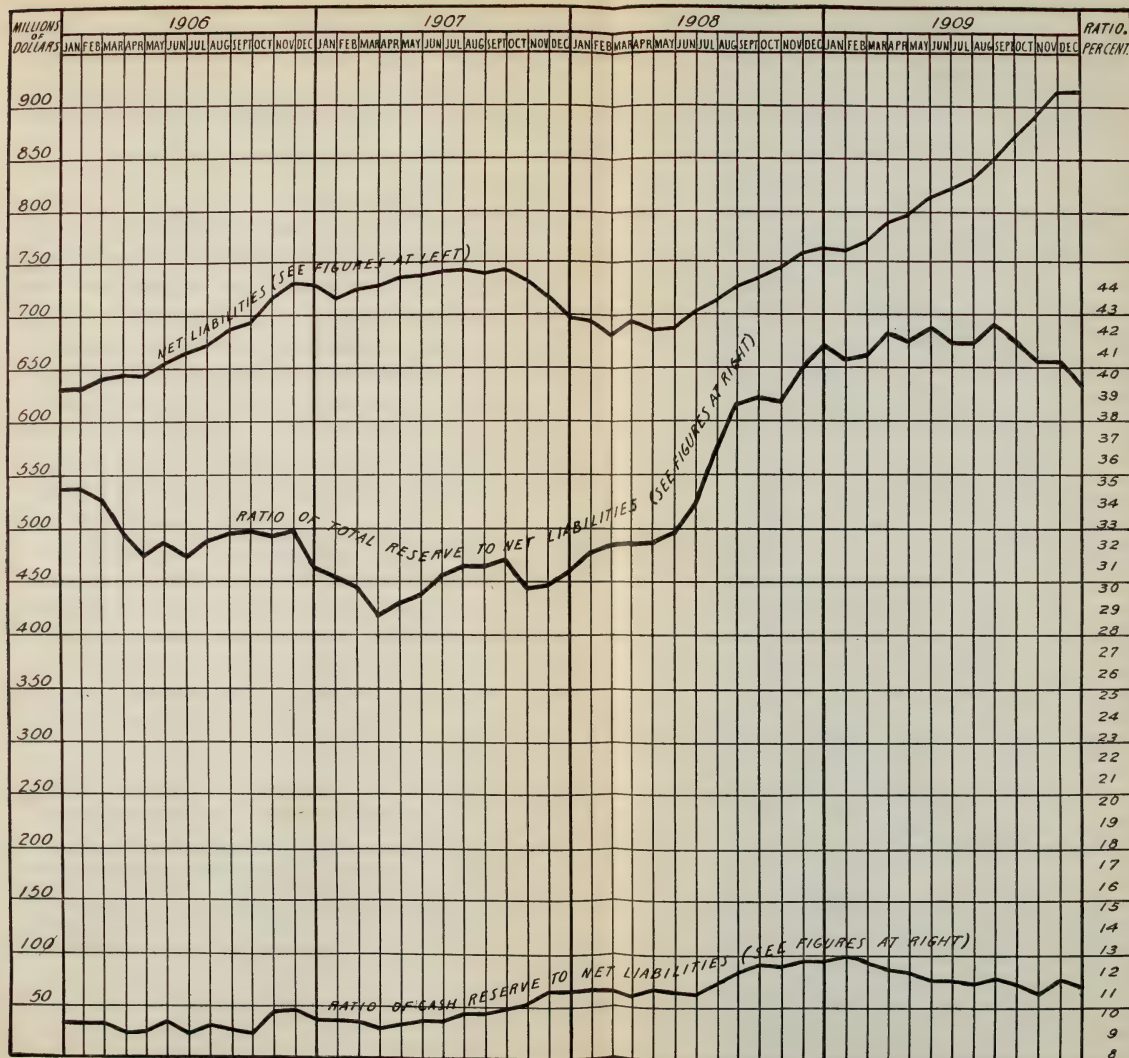


CHART VI.—RATIO OF TOTAL RESERVE AND OF CASH RESERVE TO NET LIABILITIES, 1906-1909.



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Canada's own mines is more than sufficient to furnish the annual increment in the banking reserve.^a

FLUCTUATIONS OF RESERVE, 1906-1909.

Charts V and VI (on the opposite page) show the fluctuations of the reserve during the four years 1906-1909; also changes in the amount of net liabilities. It will be noted that as a rule the total reserve (Chart V) moved up and down with changes in net liabilities, increasing greatly as the liabilities grew after the middle of 1908. Chart VI shows that the ratio of reserves to liabilities rose rapidly during the last half of 1908, when business was quiet and funds were accumulating. The ratio was nearly constant throughout 1909, but showed a downward tendency toward the end of the year, on account, doubtless, of renewed business activity in Canada.

By reference to Chart II (see page 48) the reader will note that during these three years there were great monthly fluctuations in the item "call loans" elsewhere, and a remarkable increase in 1908 and 1909. The gain in call loans in the spring and summer of 1907 doubtless reflected the Canadian bankers' desire to take advantage of the high rates of interest current in New York City. At the same time the Canadian banks were reducing their current loans in Canada, as is shown graphically on Chart I (page 48). The sharp decline in call loans in September and October,

^aThe banks quote sterling exchange in the terms of the old par of exchange, according to which the sovereign was worth, in Spanish dollars, \$4.44 $\frac{1}{9}$. The present par (\$4.8665) is about $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent above the "old par." There is some ground for suspicion that the Canadian banks preserve the antiquated par because a sixteenth added to $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent means a bigger profit than when added to \$4.8665.

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1907, was probably due to the desire of Canadian banks to increase their cash holdings, coupled with a rather well-founded distrust of the New York situation. After the October currency panic in New York the foreign call loans of the Canadian banks show a steady increase. They were at the lowest point in November, 1907, being then \$41,000,000. By December, 1908, they had risen to \$95,000,000. During the same period the cash reserve advanced from \$81,000,000 to \$97,000,000. This great increase in the cash and secondary reserve was due to the quietude in Canadian trade and industry as a result of the panic of 1907. Current loans in Canada declined from \$580,000,000 in October, 1907, to \$512,000,000 in December, 1908. (Chart I, p. 48.) Canadian banks were suffering from a glut of idle money. Their net liabilities during the last six months of 1908 increased from \$700,000,000 to \$760,000,000, and their cash reserve from \$79,000,000 to \$97,000,000. Here was a gain of \$72,000,000 in deposits and of \$18,000,000 in the cash reserve. As the current loans in Canada during this period were steadily growing less, having declined \$50,000,000 during 1908, it is evident that the gain in deposits must have been accompanied by an increase in the cash resources of the bank and that the only available outlet for this surplus was the call-loan market in New York City and elsewhere. As a result of these operations there was, of course, a considerable gain in both the cash reserve and in the secondary reserve in the latter part of 1908. The ratio of cash reserve advanced from 11 per cent in the beginning of the year to 13 per cent at the close. The total reserve

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rose from 31 per cent at the beginning of the year to 41 per cent at the end. These figures mean a very easy money market in Canada, too large a proportion of banking resources being in cash and call loans. The banks would gladly have reduced their call loans in New York City during these dull months in 1908 if they could have found profitable use for the money in Canada.

CHAPTER VII.

OPERATION OF THE SYSTEM.

The 7,500,000 people living in Canada are engaged in gainful pursuits very much like those which give support to the inhabitants of the United States. Agriculture, lumbering, mining, and fisheries are the most important industries, but manufacturing, stimulated by a moderately protective tariff, is making rapid progress. Capital at the rate of \$200,000,000 a year is coming into the Dominion from England and Scotland. From the United States are coming both money and men at such a rate that the western provinces are almost "American." Ontario is English and Scotch in ideals and customs. In Montreal and Quebec the population is largely of French descent. The population of the Dominion as a whole is intelligent, thrifty, and law-abiding, and nearly every Canadian is convinced that his country is the best on earth to work and live in, and that the development of its wonderful resources in the very near future is bound to astonish the world.

Great as has been the growth of Canada's population and wealth in the last ten years, the chartered banks have more than kept pace with it. The 36 banks in existence in 1900 had 700 branches, or one office for every 7,500 people. In 1909 the 29 banks in operation had over 2,100 branches, or one for every 3,600 inhabitants. The average of deposits per branch has declined from \$453,000 in 1900 to

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\$336,000 in 1908. The banks maintain 50 branches outside of Canada—16 in the United States, 3 in England, 5 in New Foundland, 1 in Mexico, 24 in the West Indies, and 1 in Paris.^a Only a few of the branches in the United States are permitted to receive deposits under the laws of the States in which they are located. The branches in New York City are mainly concerned in foreign exchange transactions and call loans.

OLD BANKS GET THE NEW BUSINESS.

The decline in the number of banks from 39 to 29 during the last ten years has been in part the result of failures and in part the result of consolidations. Five banks have either failed or gone into liquidation since 1900. Three of them were institutions having small deposits and their failure was of little consequence. Two, the Sovereign Bank and the Bank of Ontario, were fairly large insti-

^a Of these 50 branches 15 are offices of the Royal Bank of Canada, 7 of the Canadian Bank of Commerce, 13 of the Bank of Nova Scotia, and 7 of the Bank of Montreal.

The Monetary Times of Toronto, in its issue of February 26, 1910, puts the number of branches then in existence at 2,214, distributed as follows:

Newfoundland	6
Elsewhere	44
Ontario	962
Quebec	342
Nova Scotia	106
New Brunswick	67
Prince Edward Island	16
Manitoba	175
Alberta	156
Saskatchewan	207
British Columbia	130
Yukon	3

2,214

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tutions, one having 30 branches, the other 70. The liquidation of these was mainly due to the oversanguine and speculative temperaments of their chief managers, as is explained in the next chapter.

Eight banks have come into existence since 1900, but one of these, the Sovereign, is in liquidation, and two of the others, the Northern and the Crown, have been amalgamated. Some critics insist that the difficulties in the way of establishing a new bank are so great that the existing banks practically possess a monopoly. This criticism, however, is not altogether justifiable. A dozen or more new banks have been chartered since 1890, and there is no evidence whatever that Parliament has refused a charter to any set of deserving incorporators. The dividends of the chartered banks range from 4 to 13 per cent,^a most of them are accumulating large rest or surplus funds, and their stocks are selling at high prices. But other business enterprises in Canada are yielding higher rates of profit, and the amount of capital which men are willing to invest in a new bank is very limited. The real reason why more banks are not created in Canada does not appear to lie in the legal restrictions, but rather in the difficulty of finding the necessary amount of capital. The banking field is so well covered by existing institutions, and competition is so keen among them, that the prospects of a new bank are not as alluring as those of many other enterprises which invite capital. The population and business in Canada

^a According to Doctor Breckenridge the average rate of dividend increased from 7.59 per cent in 1900 to 8.53 per cent in 1908; while the average per cent of dividend to total of capital paid up and rest has fallen from 5.01 to 4.81.

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are increasing, however, at a rapid rate, and new banks will doubtless come into existence, although the old institutions, with their large capital and surplus, and with the unlimited right to establish branches, are in a position to expand their business indefinitely. Indeed, it is easier for the banks now in the field to get new capital than it is to get subscriptions to the stock of a new bank. Hence, while it is probable that new banks will be started from year to year, it is not likely that Canada, even when its population is four times the present figure, will have many more banks than it now has. The advantages of consolidation and the evils of unrestricted competition are realized in Canada as clearly as in the United States and have in the last decade caused a reduction in the number of banks from 39 to 29.

COMPETITION IS NOT LACKING.

In many respects banking competition is quite as active in Canada as it is in the United States. Apparently there are only two things which the banks do not like to do in order to attract business—lower the discount rate, or advance the rate paid on depositors' balances. There is no express agreement among the bankers on these points, but every banker knows that he would become persona non grata among his brethren if he should discount certain kinds of paper at less than 6 per cent, or pay his depositors on their monthly minimum balances more than 3 per cent per annum. In Montreal and Toronto large borrowers can get money at 5 per cent, but the average merchant and manufacturer must pay 6. In Winnipeg borrowers

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can do almost as well, but farther west the usual rate is 7 per cent, and in some of the remoter districts merchants and farmers alike pay 8 per cent. Bankers do not believe in lowering the discount or interest rate unless they are compelled to do so in order to find a market for their funds.

Some of the older institutions would like to prevent competition from absorbing the minor profits which come from collections and transactions in exchange, but they are not entirely successful. The nominal or schedule charges for collections and exchange are frequently cut for the benefit of business men whose favor it is desired to propitiate.

In their efforts to get new business, to be the first to open a branch in a promising new community, or to keep their regular customers from being dissatisfied, there seems to be the keenest kind of competition. Few villages of 500 people can complain that their banking facilities are less than they deserve, and many of them, with barely enough business to pay the expenses of one branch, are supplied with two. The recent rapid increase in the number of branches has been caused by the great expansion of the West and by the competition among the more progressive and energetic general managers, each desiring that his bank shall be the first in a promising field, even though his enterprise lead him to establish branches which at first do not pay expenses. In a new mining camp the first bank, like the first saloon or the first boarding house, usually begins business in a tent. Some of the more conservative bank managers in Canada think that new branches are being started in excess of the country's

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needs, but others are willing to take chances on the country's future and to charge considerable sums to the debit side of the profit and loss account in order to keep their institutions at the front in the great and developing West.^a That mistakes are not infrequent is proved by the fact that in 1909 the banks, while they opened 267 new branches, abandoned 40 old ones. Of the 40 closed 30 were located in the Province of Ontario. Of the new

^a "When a new country opens up," said a Toronto manager, "we often have to establish a branch on short notice, and we open up in any kind of quarters. At Cobalt, for instance, we cleared the snow off the ground, erected a tent, tacked up a sign, and the bank was ready for business. Supplies were rushed in and better quarters built as soon as possible. Our employees hold themselves ready to go anywhere on a moment's notice.

"Our branch bank buildings in the smaller towns are uniform in construction and equipment, and have sleeping quarters for two or three men above the banking room. The construction of these uniform buildings is so systematized that we can order a certain style building from our carpenters and they can cut and saw every piece and ship it ready to be put together. Then we have uniform equipment of bank fixtures, desks, etc., so when we order fittings for a certain style of building we know every article that is needed for its furnishings.

"In some sections of the country west of Winnipeg the branches commenced paying from the first day they were opened. At one small town the branch had \$250,000 in deposits in an incredibly short time.

"We have plenty of promising locations for branches, but our greatest trouble in expanding is in finding competent managers."

"We have branches," said another manager, "in towns too small to afford a permanent office. They are kept open only two or three days a week. One manager with two junior clerks has charge of two or three such branches, dividing their time between them. We make it a point never to have a branch bank in charge of less than three men, on account of the protection they afford from without and within. Dishonesty is very rare. We do not carry any burglar insurance, as till money is all that is kept at the smaller branches, the reserve being kept at the more important points. Money can be quickly centered at any branch where there is a call for it. At least two men are expected to sleep on the premises of the permanent branches.

"Our system allows banks to be operated with profit in all towns of 500 population. In many towns of 200 inhabitants there are branch banks."

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branches 72 were opened in Ontario and 40 in Quebec, two of the older Provinces, while in the west 13 were opened in Manitoba, 57 in Saskatchewan, 49 in Alberta, and 26 in British Columbia.

CLEARING HOUSES.

The law gives to the Canadian Bankers' Association the right to establish and regulate clearing houses. In 1909 clearing houses were in operation in fourteen cities. Total clearances for the last five years and for 1900 are given in the table below:

Clearing-house statistics.

[Expressed in thousands.]

Clearing house at—	1900.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Calgary.....			\$41,771	\$69,798	\$64,815	\$98,754
Edmonton.....			3,936	45,716	38,596	50,561
Halifax.....	\$77,594	\$98,251	91,552	93,587	90,232	95,278
Hamilton.....	40,262	68,367	78,480	88,104	72,329	84,803
London.....		50,429	57,863	65,760	56,875	62,093
Montreal.....	734,941	1,324,314	1,533,596	1,555,737	1,467,315	1,866,649
Ottawa.....		120,891	135,866	156,487	154,367	173,181
Quebec.....	70,707	86,794	92,934	107,460	111,812	118,803
Regina.....						14,153
St. John.....	37,907	52,836	60,032	66,150	66,435	72,404
Toronto.....	513,697	1,047,490	1,219,125	1,228,905	1,166,902	1,437,700
Vancouver.....	46,161	88,460	132,606	191,734	183,083	287,529
Victoria.....	32,038	36,890	45,615	55,330	55,356	70,705
Winnipeg.....	106,956	369,868	504,585	596,667	614,111	770,649
Total...	1,660,263	3,335,595	3,997,960	4,321,441	4,142,233	5,203,269

All the clearing houses are operated alike, the rules being made and approved by the Bankers' Association. The methods employed are very similar to those in use

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in the United States. Balances are paid with Dominion notes that are negotiable only between banks, by draft on Montreal, and sometimes by draft on New York. Since bank notes as well as checks are always sent through the clearing house, the totals given above include notes as well as checks. The amounts of each are not separately reported or even recorded at the clearing houses.

BANKING IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

The clearing-house statistics possess special value in Canada for the reason that they constitute the only available data with respect to the growth of banking operations in the different provinces. The monthly bank statements give totals for the Dominion. That is all the law requires, and the banks do not give the public more information than they are obliged to. One can not find out, therefore, what proportion of the deposits belong to Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba, and other provinces, in what sections loans are expanding most rapidly, or what branches make the call loans. It is generally known that the eastern branches get heavy deposits and are creditors of the head office, and that the funds they collect are forwarded to the western branches, whose loans greatly exceed deposits. Bankers will admit that this transference of funds takes place, but there is considerable grumbling about it in the old communities of the East, and the bankers fear that a monthly or even annual publication of the facts would keep them perpetually in hot water. A glance at the above clearing-house statistics leaves no doubt as to the banking importance of the western Prov-

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inces or as to the relative financial quietude of the East. Between 1900 and 1909 the total of Canada's bank clearings increased 227 per cent, but Halifax gained only 23 per cent, St. John only 90 per cent, and Quebec only 68 per cent. On the other hand, Toronto's clearings increased 179 per cent, Winnipeg's 600 per cent, and Vancouver's 524 per cent.

EASTERN PROVINCES HAVE SUFFERED.

This transference of funds from sluggish to active communities is the inevitable result of a system of branch banking and is the cause of the tendency of the rate of interest toward uniformity in all parts of Canada. Whatever may be said against a system of branch banks, there can be no question that it does bring about a more even distribution of capital in a country than is possible under a system of independent local banks. Canadian bank managers are anxious to put out their money where it is most wanted, for there they get the best possible rate of interest and obtain paper of the best quality. No matter where a manager's headquarters may be, he is most deeply concerned in three questions: (1) Where is idle money accumulating? (2) How can he best draw it into his bank? (3) In what parts of the Dominion is money most needed? In localities of both kinds he establishes branches; in the one the branches accumulate deposits often much in excess of their loans, in the others the loans exceed the deposits. Thus it happens that the savings of the Eastern Provinces, where the growth of industry and trade is slow and the demand for new capital is not

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increasing, are sent westward and loaned out to merchants and manufacturers and farmers of the new territories. The people of the East supply the capital for the development of the West, though many of them perhaps are entirely ignorant of the useful purpose their savings are made to perform. In the western cities of Canada one hears no talk among business men about the scarcity of capital. A merchant or manufacturer in Manitoba gets the money he needs as easily as does a merchant or manufacturer in Toronto or Montreal.

Justifiable as the bank's policy is from a national point of view, one can not help believing that the branch banking system has really checked the development of business and industry in the maritime Provinces. If Canada during the last thirty years had depended, like the United States, upon independent local banks, there would have been a plethora of capital in the East, and Montreal, Quebec, and Halifax, like Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, would years ago have had 4 and 5 per cent money, while Winnipeg and other western cities, less populous than now, would still be paying 1 per cent a month. The relative cheapness of capital undoubtedly helped build up the prosperous industries of Massachusetts. The same cause operating in the maritime Provinces of Canada would doubtless have led to the establishment there of industries of which the people under existing conditions have not ventured to dream.

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HOW THE CROP MOVEMENT IS FINANCED.

On account of the variety of industries in Canada, the demand upon bankers for money is fairly steady throughout the year. The heaviest pressure is felt in the fall months, when the great crops of the West are harvested and brought forward for export; and during these months the credit of the Canadian banks is always most extended, both the circulation and the deposits then being at the maximum. The movement of the crops causes an increase in the demand for loans and in the demand for currency. The additional demand for loans comes from the buyers of agricultural products and gives rise to a western movement of banking funds. Each buyer of grain or of cattle, at the beginning of the season, arranges with his bank for all the money that he expects to need. As a rule, he draws on his bank for funds with which to pay for the stock of grain he buys and forwards warehouse receipts and bills of lading as collateral security.

At the same time depositors are calling upon the banks for large sums of currency in denominations of \$5, \$10, and \$20 to use in the agricultural districts in making payments to people who prefer cash to checks. In Canada, as in the United States, many farmers who are distant from towns have no checking bank account. When they pay off their hired men and settle their accounts at the village store, they do it with cash; and in Canada this cash always consists of bank notes. As a result, the circulation of Canadian banks invariably expands during the months of September, October, and November. By December an inward movement begins. As the bank

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notes are paid to him by the farmers, the country store-keeper deposits them in the local branch of his bank, and this sends them at once to the nearest redemption center or clearing house. At the same time the checks paid out by the buyers of grain and stock are also pouring into the clearing houses and both checks and notes are cleared in the same fashion.

DOUBLE PULL ON THE BANKS.

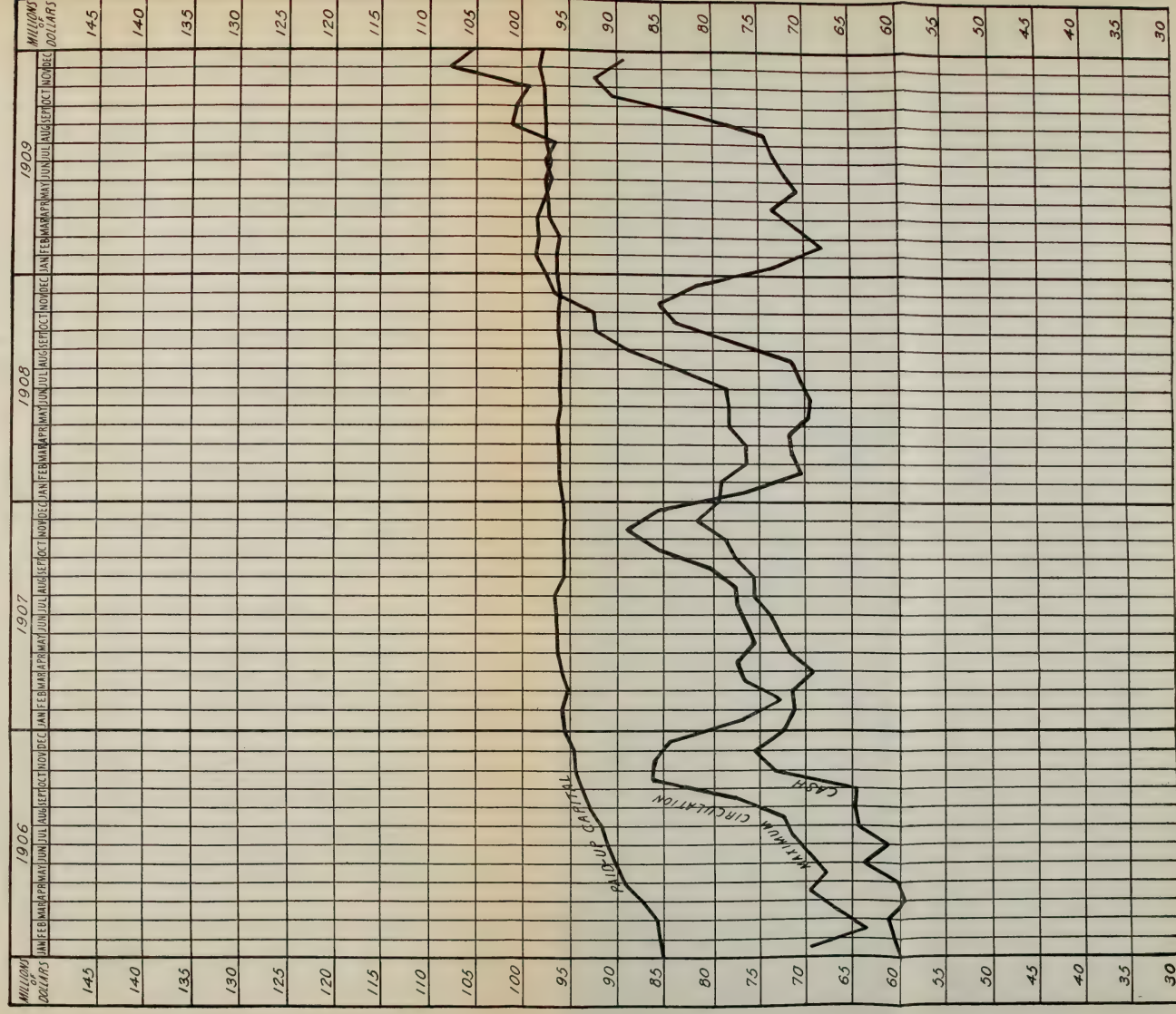
The banks stand this double drain on their resources—the increased demand for loans and for currency—without any inconvenience. They do not advance the rate of interest and apparently do not deny any of their regular customers. Ordinarily, as their liabilities increase in the fall on account of expanding deposits and note circulation, they reduce their call loans in New York City, and so add a few million to their cash reserve. In 1906, for example, the net liabilities of the Canadian banks rose from \$635,000,000 September 1 to \$705,000,000 November 1, an increase of \$40,000,000. Their current loans in Canada during the same months rose from \$515,000,000 to \$550,000,000, a gain of \$35,000,000. The note circulation that year began to increase in August and reached its highest point in October, rising from \$72,000,000 to \$86,000,000. By December 31 it had declined to \$78,000,000. The banks began to increase their cash reserves on May 1 of that year, raising the total during the next four months from \$59,000,000 to \$65,000,000. During the month of September the cash reserve was increased from \$65,000,000 to \$74,000,000, a gain of \$9,000,000 in one month. During October there was an

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increase of \$1,000,000. After November 1 the cash reserve declined. The increase of \$9,000,000 during the month of September was evidently due to the bankers' desire to guard against their increasing liabilities and appears to have been brought about by a reduction in call loans in New York City and by the sale of securities. Merely by adding \$10,000,000 to their holdings of money the banks were able to permit their demand deposits during the months of September, October, and November to increase \$25,000,000, and their circulating notes about \$12,000,000, making a total increase in their net liabilities of \$37,000,000.

The conduct of the banks during the next two years—1907 and 1908—which were unusual in character, is discussed in the next chapter. In both these years, as the reader will see by a glance at Chart VII (page 96), the volume of notes in circulation varied in the usual manner, reaching the maximum in November, then declining to the minimum in February. The liquidation that everywhere followed the panic of October, 1907, causing a general reduction in bank deposits and bank loans, was quickly over in Canada. The year 1908 was a breathing spell in Canadian industry and finance, but the bank returns show that there was no lack of confidence in the banks and that the floating capital of the country had not been seriously impaired. The demand deposits, which declined throughout 1907, began to gain in February of 1908, and climbed steadily upward throughout the year. The time deposits held their own after February 1, but did not begin to increase until August 1. That these gains in deposits were mainly due to increasing cash receipts is indicated by the

CHART VII.—COMPARISON OF MAXIMUM CIRCULATION WITH CASH ON HAND AND WITH PAID-UP CAPITAL, 1906-1909.



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fact that the current loans in Canada declined steadily throughout 1908, and by the steady augmentation of the cash reserve, which throughout both 1908 and 1909 exceeded at all times the amount of notes in circulation.

In 1908, although the maximum circulation was only \$85,000,000, being \$11,000,000 under the legal limit, seven banks took advantage of the amendment to the bank act and issued notes in excess of their paid-up capital, paying a tax on the excess at the rate of 5 per cent per annum. In 1909 the maximum circulation in November touched the highest point ever reached and thirteen banks issued notes in excess of their paid-up capital, the largest excess on any one day being \$2,373,000. In 1908 the largest amount of "emergency" notes outstanding on any day was only \$775,000.^a As is pointed out in Chapter IX, if the banks since 1900 had properly increased the amount of their capital stock, instead of charging their undivided profits to the surplus or rest account, there would have been no necessity for "emergency" issues of notes

VARIATIONS IN THE CIRCULATION.

By referring to Chart II (see page 48) the reader will easily get an idea of the elasticity of the circulation. He will observe that the amount of notes outstanding invariably increases after September 1 and reaches its maxi-

^a In 1908 the total daily excess amounted to \$9,299,000 in October, \$9,105,000 in November, and \$705,826 in December. The largest one-day excess issued by all the banks was \$723,000 in October, \$775,000 in November, and \$144,000 in December.

In 1909 the total daily excess was \$12,500,000 in October, \$26,300,000 in November, and \$15,612,000 in December. The largest one-day excess by all the banks, \$1,448,000 in October, \$2,373,000 in November, and \$1,600,000 in December.

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mum in November, then declining sharply during January and February. With respect to these changes in the circulation two facts should be borne in mind by anyone wishing to understand the Canadian system.

First, the autumnal increase is not brought about by any effort on the part of the banks; it is beyond their control, and they could not prevent it if they wished to. Indeed, the note circulation of the Canadian banks is one liability they can not reduce or enlarge at will. They can stop the growth of deposits by refusing new accounts or by declining to make additional loans, and the people would have to submit; but the public's need for currency, small in the summer, large in the autumn, the banks must satisfy—the only alternative being suspension.

Second, the additional notes are not directly a source of profit to the banks. The notion that Canadian banks give notes to their borrowers and that the additional issues in the fall represent loans at 6 per cent, is a mistake. Canadian banks, like those in the United States, give deposit accounts to borrowers, and it is a matter of indifference to the Canadian banks whether their customers check out their accounts or call for notes. The fact that the banks can issue the notes as needed is directly an advantage to the public and hence indirectly beneficial to the banks, for it saves them from the necessity of calling loans in order to get the extra currency needed in the crop-moving season. By reference to Chart VII (page 96) the reader will see that the amount of legal-tender money in the banks, i. e., their cash reserve, tends to vary somewhat with the amount of notes in circulation, the two

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being nearly equal; but he must not infer that the fluctuations in the cash reserve are due to changes in the volume of the circulation. The reserve is the protection for all the liabilities of the banks, and of these the deposits exceed the circulation nearly tenfold. The banks take pains to increase it in the fall, because then all their liabilities, deposits as well as notes, are certain to increase, and they wish to be fully prepared for the redemption of an unusually large amount of both checks and notes. As a rule, they add to the reserve in the fall by a slight reduction of their balances on deposit in foreign countries, especially in New York City, and thus are enabled to enlarge their current loans in Canada. If they were not permitted to issue notes, they would every fall have to import from New York a considerable amount of gold, and all the risk and expense involved in getting it would be borne by the Canadian people.

LARGE USE OF DEPOSIT CURRENCY.

It is sometimes assumed that a free and large use of bank notes tends to discourage the use of the check book and the growth of bank deposits. On the continent of Europe, for instance, where the notes of central banks supply all the currency the people need, the check book is comparatively little used. This fact is sometimes explained by the ease with which people can obtain bank notes for use in making all payments. Experience in Canada makes one doubt the validity of this explanation. The check book is almost as popular there as in the United States, and would probably be used still more than

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it is if the banks would adopt a policy as liberal as that in vogue in the United States. The Canadian banks not only charge exchange on checks and drafts payable in other localities, but even charge exchange on checks drawn on their own branches. The charge is a small one and probably has no great effect one way or the other, yet it certainly does not encourage the increase of deposits or the use of the check book. When a Canadian starts on a journey it is in a small way economical for him to fill his wallet with all the cash he expects to need. The notes of his bank will be taken at par everywhere throughout the country; his checks, even though he presents them at a branch of his bank, will be cashed only at a discount.^a

Notwithstanding this discrimination against the check, the deposits of Canadian banks have grown much more rapidly than the note circulation and the inference is that the volume of deposit currency has increased at the same rapid pace. Since 1900 the volume of notes has increased from \$50,758,000 to \$81,326,000 in 1909, a gain of 60 per cent. During the same period the deposits by the public increased from \$297,915,000 to \$760,350,000, a gain of 155 per cent, and the total clearings in the same period increased 227 per cent. These figures prove that business men in Canada appreciate the advantages of the check as a means of payment, and that the proportion of business transactions settled by it is steadily increasing.

^aCompetition forces the banks to grant favors to large and regular customers which are denied to the small and occasional customer, and the free collection of checks and drafts upon Canadian banks, as well as upon some cities in the United States, is one of the concessions which a valued customer usually obtains.

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INVESTMENT CAPITAL WELL DISTRIBUTED.

The conditions which bring about the even or equitable distribution of business capital have a similar effect upon the flow of investment funds. A western city in Canada can obtain money for the construction of a street railway or the installation of an electric-light plant almost as cheaply and as readily as can an eastern city. Indeed, the stocks and bonds of new enterprises in all Canadian towns and cities obtain capital strictly on their merits. If two towns or cities—one in the west, the other in the east—need capital for enterprises containing inherently equally good assurance of income and safety, the one is likely to fare as well as the other in the loan market. This does not mean, of course, that all municipal and industrial enterprises in Canada borrow funds at the same rate of interest, nor that the rate of interest paid in the west is uniformly as low as that paid in the east, for the prospects of enterprises vary in Canada as in other countries, and the future of every new community is more or less uncertain.

Taking into account the uncertainties that necessarily attach to the development of enterprises in new localities, which add to the element of risk always involved in the loaning of money, it may fairly be said that Canada has only one money market and only one rate of interest. In the United States great masses of loanable capital accumulate in the cities of the east and can be drawn into the country only by positive assurance of an extraordinary rate of interest. In Canada one finds no such accumulation of capital in a few cities and no such reluctance to loan it out at distant points. Banks in Montreal or Toronto lend

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with equal freedom in both the west and in the east, and their managers have equal familiarity with the needs and credit of both sections. The fact that a bank's head office is in one of these cities is no evidence whatever that its main interests are there. Nor if the head office is in a smaller city, such as Sherbrook or Hamilton, does it follow that it is a second-rate institution with local interests only. The real nature of the Canadian system can not be understood by anyone who fails to grasp the fact that the Canadian banks are in no sense local institutions. With two or three unimportant exceptions they are national institutions, and their managers are on the keen lookout for any chance to increase their business in any community between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

I have said that if we make allowance for the element of risk involved, the rate of interest is practically the same throughout the Dominion. Perhaps we should also take into account the element of expense. As a matter of fact, the rate of interest is about 1 per cent higher in the west than in the east. Borrowers in country districts also pay a higher rate than those living in the cities. Prime commercial paper can be discounted in Montreal at 5 per cent, but the bulk of discounts is at 6 per cent. In Winnipeg the prevailing rate on commercial paper is 6 per cent, but in the new towns west of Winnipeg the rate upon all but the choicest kind of paper is 7 per cent. The rate is higher in the new localities and in the country districts, not because the paper is necessarily poorer, but because the maintenance of branches in these new localities, and in all small towns, is more expensive per dollar of business

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done than in the larger cities. If the people in a newly settled community were not willing and able to pay 7 per cent for money, the banks could not afford to establish branches among them as quickly as they do. If a bank has the enterprise to open a branch in a mining camp, which can be reached only by a long journey through the wilderness, it is naturally to be expected that it will charge for its services a price that will compensate for the risk and expense involved. In this respect banks, as dealers in money and credit, are like dealers in provisions and general merchandise. They charge high prices because their risks and expenses are high, not because they have an assured monopoly, nor because they handle a commodity which can not stand long or rough journeys.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE SYSTEM IN TIME OF STRESS.

Since the present system of banking was perfected in 1890, Canada has had no banking panic. She has suffered from periods of depression and hard times, caused either by short crops or by the failure of outside markets to absorb her produce at satisfactory prices, but never from scarcity of currency, from runs upon banks, from business failures, or from the inability of banks to meet their obligations. It is impossible to escape the conclusion that the credit for Canada's immunity from panic and financial distress is largely due to the character of her banking system.

No country can expect to be free from periods of dullness, no matter how perfect its banking system. International relations in trade and finance are so close that all countries suffer from the mistakes made by any one. Canada has depended very much upon English capital. She is relatively a large consumer of the products of the United States and has many an enterprise which owes its inception to American initiative. Hard times in England or in the United States must inevitably affect Canadian business. She is borrowing from England as this country did a century ago. Her credit system rests upon the gold reserves of London and New York. Under these circumstances, when one recalls how the credit and financial system of England and the United States have been shaken during the last twenty years, it is remarkable that Canada has escaped serious damage.

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STRONG BECAUSE ELASTIC.

Canada's banking system contains two features that give it great strength under the threat of panic or crises. One is the elasticity of the note circulation, the other the solidarity or unity of the system. The reason why Canada has never suffered from a currency panic lies on the surface. The banks always have cash enough to meet the demands of their depositors. Instead of being in the position of their brethren across the border, that is, anxious to conserve their cash, they welcome any legitimate opportunity for the increase of their circulation. Except for a few weeks during the panic period of 1907, when practically all the banks of the United States had suspended cash payments, the Canadian banks have always had currency on hand in excess of their customers' needs. This currency consisted of their own notes. To their customers the bank notes are perfectly good money. Even though people got suspicious of the solvency of a Canadian bank, its notes would not be in disfavor.

Furthermore, when Canadian banks satisfy their customers' demands for cash, their resources are unimpaired. They are not obliged, as are the banks of the United States, to call loans in order to make good their cash reserve. With the public their notes have all the efficiency of gold itself, and the fact that they are paid out so willingly by the bankers, the supply as a rule seeming inexhaustible, prevents anything like a panic starting among the people.

The elasticity of the note issue, however, is not the most important factor contributing to the peace and security of the Canadian financial system. It must be regarded,

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indeed, as an essential factor, for without it the banks would be unable to maintain equilibrium without resorting to methods that at times would be perilous. If in any emergency they were obliged to raise their rates of interest and to seek to increase their resources by the reduction of loans, it is doubtful if Canada, despite the strength of its banking system in other respects, could escape from the losses caused by panic.

SOLIDARITY OR UNITY OF THE SYSTEM.

The other feature making for financial ease in Canada, namely, the solidarity or unity of the banking system, is not easy to describe. It is a growth, a situation, rather than a creation of the law. When one has in view the protection of Canada's business and financial welfare, it is impossible not to regard the 29 chartered banks, with their 2,200 branches, as a single institution. As lenders of money they are independent units. For that matter, the branch of each bank has a great deal of independence. All are independently seeking for deposits. Each branch is seeking to make the largest possible profit, and its manager is encouraging to the utmost the enterprises in his locality, for on the growth of the business he does depends his favor at headquarters. Nevertheless, from a national point of view, despite the competition among the banks and their branches, there is considerable reason for regarding the 29 chartered banks of Canada as one institution.

Consider, for instance, the following facts:

1. Over 50 per cent of the banking business in Canada is done by 6 banks. One of these, the Bank of Montreal, has assets exceeding 20 per cent of the total. Another,

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the Bank of Commerce, with head office at Toronto, has resources equal to 13 per cent of the total.

2. The Bank of Montreal is the depository of most of the government funds and among the people is commonly spoken of as the government bank.

3. The Bankers' Association, an organization created by law, is a medium through which the best banking opinion finds authoritative expression. Through this association the banks keep advised of all pending legislation in any way affecting banking interests.

4. Bank managers are trained experts and each one has the expert's regard for a man who has had a wider experience or a better training than himself. As a result, no manager will venture far upon a policy which is regarded by his competitors as dangerous.

5. All the banks are equally interested in the unbroken prosperity of the country. The managers of the six largest banks, each having charge of over a hundred branches, are particularly watchful. They realize that speculative excesses in any part of the country will bring loss to them and must be discouraged.

6. On account of this mutual interdependence of the banks, no bank in Canada can hope to achieve success by striking out upon an absolutely independent policy, if such conduct is likely to meet with the disapproval of the banking fraternity. The business public, from which a new bank must get its support, has confidence in the management and judgment of the established institutions. A depositor may feel that he ought to get more than 3 per cent interest on his balance. He may complain that his bank does not give him credit enough, or that it is not

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liberal enough in its collections. Nevertheless he would be reluctant to give his account to a new institution or to any institution, whether old or new, if it were managed by men not in good standing with the leading bankers.

7. In their insistence on the rule that a man shall borrow from only one bank the banks have done more than appears on the surface to make their system a unit. If a merchant is refused credit at one bank, he finds it practically impossible to get help from any other. This rule certainly makes the 29 banks of the Dominion, from the borrower's point of view, a single institution.

8. There is practical unanimity of opinion among bankers with regard to business conditions and the outlook. The managers of Canadian banks get their information with regard to the country's condition from the managers of branches. Since all know what is going on in every part of the country, it is not remarkable that all usually are very much in agreement, for the sources of information of all are practically the same.^a As a result, Canada has a "banker's opinion" with regard to the business situation, as distinguished from the "opinions of bankers" in the United States. In the latter country the bankers in the West are often in disagreement with the bankers in the East, and the eastern bankers are fre-

^a During the writer's stay in Canada in April, 1909, he talked with bankers in Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, and Winnipeg. Everywhere he raised practically the same topics of conversation, and everywhere got practically the same answers. The managers at the head offices get daily reports and letters from their branch managers, and the head offices in their turn send out information to the branches. As a result the men in the banking business in Canada know more about the whole country than any other set of men. The files of one of the larger banks probably contain more valuable and more accurate information about the current events in Canada than can be found in the files of any newspaper.

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quently in considerable ignorance of the conditions and events which are shaping the opinions of their western brethren. In Canada, with reference to questions of fact or actual conditions, one finds very seldom any difference of opinion among Canadian bankers. If there is excessive speculation in any part of the country, if a certain industry is suffering because of tariff changes in Europe, or because of a scarcity of raw materials, or if capital is being employed in an industry in amounts not warranted by the demand, or if there is the prospect of a light yield of any agricultural product, the bankers are among the first to get the information, and all of them have it.

IMPORTANCE OF THE BANKER.

This unanimity among the bankers with regard to business conditions makes the individual banker a much more important person in Canada than he is in the United States. Business men there do not speak of him as a mere money lender. They look upon him as a man who has especial facilities for getting information about business and financial questions and whose opinion, therefore, is entitled to great respect. This is true not only of the general managers, who as a rule live in the large cities and are men past middle life, but is true as well of the managers even of the small branches. In every community the manager of a branch bank, especially if it is a branch of one of the half dozen largest institutions, occupies a prominent position and exerts a powerful influence in the shaping of business opinion. Not only does he send reports daily or weekly with respect to events of importance within his field, but he himself is constantly getting letters of advice

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from the head office. He is the one man in the community who is in touch with the business conditions of the Dominion or, for that matter, of the world. He may be a young man, but he has had a training in the methods of Canadian banking, and it is known that he would not occupy his position if his superiors did not have confidence in his judgment.

As a result of all these conditions working together, it may fairly be said that Canada possesses many of the advantages of a central bank. The employees of each bank, from general manager down to the office boy in the smallest branch, are busily occupied in doing their share toward increasing the bank's business and profits. Each is keenly on the lookout for an opportunity to establish a new branch in a promising young community, and each is doing its best to serve its customers and to gain new ones. But if a cloud appear on the horizon, if bad news comes from England with regard to Canadian investments, or if there is wild speculation in Wall street, the leading bankers get together, not formally, but informally, and as a result the Canadian banks become practically a unit in their attitude toward the common peril.

THE PANIC OF 1907.

The policy adopted by the Canadian banks at the end of 1906, and followed throughout the strenuous year of 1907, illustrates forcibly the solidarity of the banking system. All business men remember the feverish activity of 1906, the steady advance in prices of goods, the insatiable demand for money, and the high rates of interest everywhere prevailing at the end of the year. To the average man

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it seemed a period of boundless and unending prosperity. Railroads had not cars enough to haul the freight offered them and could not get them built fast enough. Manufacturers in the United States and in Canada had withdrawn their traveling salesmen because they already had orders for a year ahead.

In the United States a few of the leaders in industry and finance sounded a note of warning, but most men were too busy to hear it and most of the 10,000 bankers refused to believe it justified. As the decline in the market prices of securities began in January, a few bankers in New York City—those in closest touch with the financial needs of corporations and with the temper of foreign money markets—became convinced that serious times were ahead. Most of those men, knowing that a public expression of their apprehensions would do little good and might do harm, silently went about the business of strengthening their resources. Meantime 10,000 or more bankers throughout the country, wondering why the stock market should be weak when the country was so prosperous, continued to make advances at high rates of interest to expanding enterprises. As a result, when the crash came in October, it is doubtful if more than 10 per cent of the bankers in the United States were prepared for it, and for several weeks there was an almost universal suspension of specie payments and withdrawal of banking support from deserving borrowers.

CANADIAN BANKS WERE PREPARED.

In Canada there was no panic. For a year the leading Canadian bankers had been urging upon their customers

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the necessity for caution, and in their annual reports to the shareholders early in 1907 bank presidents and general managers had given notice that the phenomenal profits and business of the preceding few years could not be expected to continue much longer. Financial journals and editorial writers for the daily press, taking their cue from the bankers, had for months called attention to the strain upon the world's money markets and pointed out the necessity for conservatism, not only among the banks but among the promoters of new enterprises.

As an illustration of the attitude of the Canadian banker, and therefore of the Canadian business public, the following paragraph from the annual address of the general manager of the Canadian Bank of Commerce, delivered before the shareholders January 8, 1907, is worth quoting:

“While we are enjoying an extraordinary prosperity, there are signs about us of a strain which must bring trouble if they are disregarded. We are a borrowing country, and we can not be reminded of this too often. As we fix capital in new structures, public or private, railways, buildings, etc., someone must find the capital in excess of what we can ourselves provide out of the salable products of our labor. The number of countries willing to buy our securities has been steadily increasing, but we must not be blind, as we sometimes seem to be, to the fact that our power to build depends largely on whether these countries have surplus capital to invest. By means of the cable the trading nations of the world have been brought very near together, and while many local panics have thus been averted, and the adjustment of capital to the world's needs has been greatly improved, still

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for the same reason world-wide trouble in the money markets sometimes arises with a suddenness which is alarming to those at least who are not watching for the signs. We are passing through such a period just now, happily without a general breakdown, but unless we mend our ways we are not likely to escape a similar or still worse condition next autumn, which may wreck our fair prosperity. Europe is bearing the enormous cost of two great wars, both in the loss of capital actually destroyed and also in the loss to individuals from the decline in the values of the national securities of the countries interested in the wars. And since these wars, losses on an unexampled scale have occurred by earthquake and fire. The volume of trade and the unusual amount of building in many countries have at the same time vastly increased the amount of capital required. This has been accompanied by a steady rise in prices throughout the world, and by a most pronounced and widespread advance in the scale of personal expenditure. It is true that it has also been accompanied by the greatest production of gold and of other commodities, but the effect of the various influences has naturally been to put upon the money markets a strain which has only just failed to cause a general breakdown of credit. To make the outlook still more serious, the United States and other less important countries, including Canada, contemplate expenditures on a very large scale for railway and other building.

“This, then, is a time for every prudent man to survey carefully his financial position. If he has debts he should consider how he will pay them if he should have to face worldwide stringency in money. Has he assets which the

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world needs for daily use, or assets which will sell only when the sun is shining? If he is happily in easy condition as to debt, he will, if he be wise, consider every circumstance arising in his business which tends toward debt instead of toward liquidation. As for those who are plunging in real estate at inflated prices, and in mining stocks, nothing we presume, but the inevitable collapse which follows these seasons of mania will do any good."

The important thing about this paragraph is not the fact that events have fully justified its gloomy predictions, but the fact that practically every general manager in Canada was talking in similar fashion at the same time to his own shareholders. In January, 1907, there was only one opinion among bankers as to the financial situation. For several years the country's trade had been expanding by leaps and bounds. Immigrants had poured into the country from Europe and from the United States. New capital had come from England and the United States at the rate of \$200,000,000 a year. The profits of industrial and commercial products had been large. In ten years bank loans and deposits had doubled. In short, Canada's prosperity had been even greater than that of the United States. The demand for capital had outrun the supply, and the strain upon the banking resources every bank manager knew had reached the danger point. Every one of them said this to their shareholders; the newspapers published their remarks, and business men throughout the Dominion knew not only that they ought to retrench, but that they must. They knew that they could get no help from the banks if they sought to enlarge their operations.

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GRADUAL CONTRACTION OF LOANS.

It was impossible, of course, for the banks to call an immediate halt in the expansion of enterprise or in the use of their credit. During 1906 (as is graphically shown by Chart I, p. 46) the current loans in Canada had risen from \$450,000,000 to \$550,000,000, an increase of nearly 25 per cent. Any attempt on the part of the banks to bring this upward movement to a sudden termination would have ruined many a solvent concern. For five months, or until the end of May, the banks suffered it to continue, their loans during that period rising from \$550,000,000 to \$590,000,000. Then began a gradual contraction and a steady increase in the cash reserve. Between June 1 and September 1 the total of their current loans in Canada declined \$10,000,000. At the same time they strengthened their reserves by accumulating cash in their own vaults and by enlarging the amount of their funds on call in New York City. Canadian borrowers were treated with more consideration than those in foreign countries, as is shown by the reduction in current loans elsewhere from \$36,000,000 to \$23,000,000 between February 1 and July 1. The banks appear to have endeavored to convert their time loans outside of Canada into call loans, having in view an increase in the amount of funds available for immediate use. (See Chart II.)

Between January 1 and September 1 there was a decline in the demand deposits from \$192,000,000 to \$160,000,000 and an increase in time deposits from \$400,000,000 to \$425,000,000, so that the total of deposits suffered very little diminution. After the first of September, however,

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deposits steadily declined until the end of the year; time deposits from \$425,000,000 September 1 to \$400,000,000 December 31. Demand deposits remained practically unchanged during this period.

By the first of September Canadian bank managers were evidently quite alive to the necessity for caution. Thereafter all the changes in their statements indicated a conviction on their part that the situation was precarious and that the banker's first duty is to preserve the solvency of his bank and take care of its regular customers. They knew that large sums would be demanded of them for the movement of the crops and were disposed therefore to take every precaution against weakness. The season was late and it was known therefore that there would be difficulty getting the crops to market, for the Canadian railroads, like those in the United States, were embarrassed by lack of equipment. The *Toronto News*, whose financial editor was doubtless in touch with Toronto bankers, thus describes the situation in September, 1907:

"The Canadian situation corresponds more or less fully with that of New York. Here also considerable sums must be found for moving the western crops at a period of the year later than usual. Here also the banks are finding difficulty in keeping up their deposits and in finding the funds necessary for financing the extensive industrial enterprises which they are supporting. The raising of fresh capital for these enterprises is necessarily a matter of difficulty under the present conditions. There is, however, no indication of unsoundness. The obvious policy is to resist temptation toward increased expenditure

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on capital account on the one hand and to exercise a close scrutiny of current expenditure on the other."

In that paragraph the Toronto News doubtless expressed the opinion prevailing among bankers with regard to the situation. They were confident that they could take care of their customers' needs and provide funds for the movement of the country's crops. That there might be a crash in the United States they knew to be a possibility, but they could not foresee it and they hoped that the worst was over.

CALL LOANS REDUCED IN NEW YORK.

When the crash came in New York and the Knickerbocker Trust Company suspended on the 22d of October, Canadian banks immediately adopted measures of self-protection. During the next two months the total of their call loans outside of Canada declined from \$62,000,000 to \$40,000,000. There was also a small reduction of their call loans in Canada. Their cash reserve was increased by \$5,000,000. Their current loans in Canada, however, were \$10,000,000 less November 30 than on October 1, and in December they fell off \$15,000,000 more. These two months, November and December, were strenuous months in Canada as they were everywhere in the world. The western wheat crop was late and as a result there was a great clamor for funds for their movement. Currency was so scarce in the United States that Canadian bank notes disappeared over the border and performed their function as a medium of exchange in towns and country districts in the United States many miles distant from the Canadian line. Most of the banks

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found that their circulation was dangerously near the maximum and feared that they might be called upon to pay out legal tender. There was not the slightest suspicion of banks in Canada and no talk whatever of a run upon any bank. People did complain, however, that the banks were not doing their duty by the western farmers. Why should the banks be lending money on call in Wall street, when the farmers of Manitoba were unable to market their crops because buyers could not get funds from the banks?

CIRCULATION TOO NEAR THE LIMIT.

The banks, their deposits declining, their circulation near the maximum, the railroads unable to haul the crops promptly to market, dared not tie up funds in agricultural products which might later be called for by the commercial and industrial interests of the Dominion. If their capital had been larger so that they might have expanded their note circulation with impunity, the situation would have been less difficult. Yet something more than notes was wanted. For the first time in many years Canada felt the pinch of that want which is annually felt in the United States, namely, a sudden and great increase in the demand for both capital and currency. And for the first time they faced the risk of being compelled to pay out legal tender money if they satisfied the demands of grain buyers. In other words, the Canadian banks and the agricultural interests of Canada during the last three months of 1907 had a taste of what the banks and farmers of the United States experience every year. The banks dared not make large advances to the buyers of grain lest the depletion of

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their reserves or an excessive issue of notes should result. The total circulation had climbed up to \$89,000,000, which was only about \$6,000,000 under the maximum, and no bank felt that it could authorize its branches to increase the issue of notes; the risk of being called upon to pay the penalty for excessive issue was too great.

To the Canadian banker and to his customer the situation was entirely new. Never before during this generation had the banks been obliged to restrict their loans merely because they feared that an excessive issue of notes might result. Serious and new as the situation was, and though it gave rise to many complaints in business circles, nevertheless there were no important business failures in Canada, and bankers in general felt confident that they would be able to bring the country safely through the crisis. In the last two months of the year the deposits declined \$30,000,000 and the current loans in Canada \$25,000,000. This shrinkage was inevitable. Many depositors having investments in the United States were obliged to protect them by the withdrawal of funds from Canada. The banks, on their side, were obliged to withdraw their assistance from such customers as needed it least. It is the boast of the banks, however, and is now generally admitted, that during these two months no man who actually deserved and needed a loan was refused it, and few borrowers were obliged to pay an unusual rate of interest.

THE GOVERNMENT TRIES TO HELP.

Canadians are readers of the newspapers of the United States, and they know something about our habit of calling

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upon the Government for aid whenever money is "tight." So the question was asked, Why should not the Dominion treasury come to our relief? The banks, it should be noted, did not ask this question. They did not believe that government aid was necessary. Nor was it evident how government aid could be afforded, for the Dominion treasury, unlike that of the United States, keeps all of its cash at all times in the banks, and so has no reserve fund on hand on which to draw for the purpose of easing the money market. The Government, however, was impressed by the popular demand and came forward with an offer of relief which involved a suspension of the Dominion legal tender act, similar to the suspension of the Peel bank act whereby the Bank of England has been permitted to issue notes unsecured by coin.

The issue was made upon the authority of the governor in council dated November 12, 1907, on a memorandum from the minister of finance, in which he described the effect of the world-wide monetary stringency upon Canada and declared that there was much anxiety in the West among farmers, traders, and bankers over "the prospect of insufficient financial accommodation to move the crop." He recommended that the minister be authorized to issue new Dominion notes and deposit them with the banks most largely interested in the grain business, and to accept from the banks high-class securities. In the second memorandum, dated November 26, he recommended that the advances be made through the Bank of Montreal, at such rates of interest, not less than 4 per cent per annum, as the Bank of Montreal might deem fair and reasonable. The advances were not to exceed \$10,000,000 and were to

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be protected by the deposit of securities satisfactory to the Bank of Montreal. These issues of Dominion notes were approved by act of Parliament July 20, 1908.^a Events proved that the bankers were right in their claim that they were fully able to take care of the western situation, for there was a call for only \$5,115,000 of this emergency issue of Dominion notes. The bankers understood the situation better than did the minister of finance, yet to a citizen of the United States who is used to seeing the Treasury come to the relief of the money market, it is not at all remarkable that the minister felt constrained to give heed to the western cry for more money. The situation was without precedence in Canadian finance. For the first time in their history the chartered banks were obliged to limit their operations, not because their cash resources were low, but because their note issues were practically up to the legal limit, and they feared that further expansion of their loans would cause an inroad upon their cash reserve.

The situation was complicated by the lateness of the wheat crop and still further by the fact that a large part of the crop had been injured by frost. Furthermore, the farmers of the West were dissatisfied with the price offered for their wheat and were holding much of it back from the market. These circumstances caused delay in the movement of the crop and hence tended to tie up bank funds for a longer period than usual. But these were not all the causes of difficulty and delay. Much Canadian wheat is shipped to the East via Port Arthur and Buffalo. This

^a The memoranda and act of Parliament relating to this issue of Dominion notes are presented in Appendix A.

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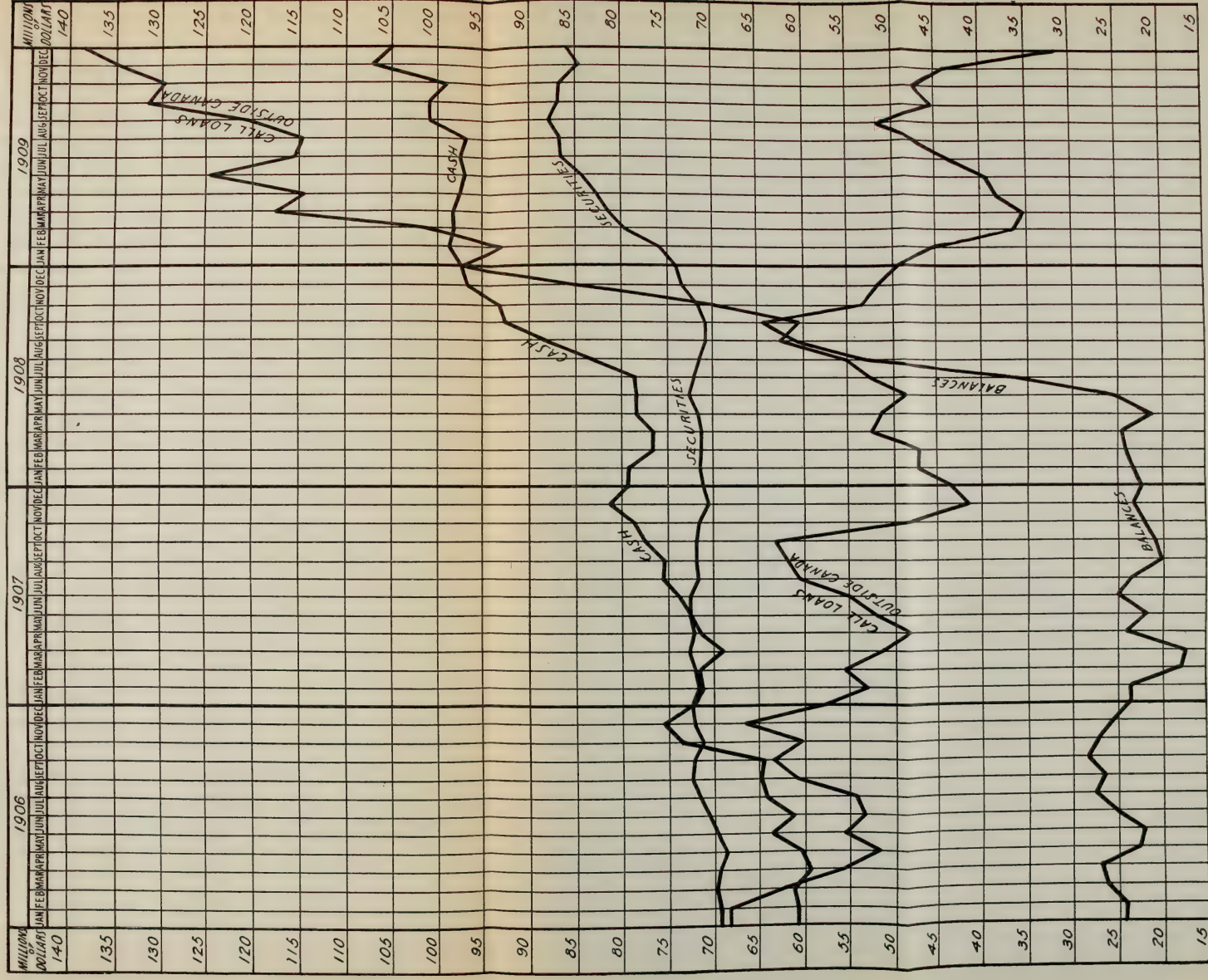
route in 1907 Canadian shippers did not like to use, for the New York checks or drafts which they got in payment were at a discount in gold. The bulk of the wheat had to be shipped, therefore, either by the Montreal water route or by the Canadian Pacific, and the transportation facilities were not adequate.

It would seem, therefore, that the inability of the farmer to get a satisfactory price for his wheat, or to get it forward quickly to market, was due not to the failure of banks to do their part, but to the inferior quality of a large part of their crop and to the inadequacy of transportation facilities, aggravated by the panic in the United States.

EVENTS IN 1908.

During 1908 it was inevitable that Canada should suffer from the after effect of the panic in the United States. Immigrants from the United States continued to pour into the Dominion and they brought considerable capital with them. As a result the development of the western provinces, such as Alberta and Saskatchewan, continued without abatement, and the city of Winnipeg, which is the metropolis for the great western country, had a fairly prosperous and active year. In the eastern provinces, however, hard times prevailed. Practically no new capital came over the border from the United States, prices of commodities were low, and most business concerns were seeking to hold their own rather than to enlarge their operations. Canada's financial and commercial relations with the United States and England are so intimate that her economic activities were necessarily affected by the universal reaction.

CHART VIII.—FLUCTUATIONS IN THE FOUR FACTORS OF THE RESERVE: CASH, BALANCES ON DEPOSIT OUTSIDE OF CANADA, CALL LOANS OUTSIDE OF CANADA, AND SECURITIES, 1906-1909.



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The character of the year 1908 is shown by the bank returns. Current loans declined steadily from November 1, 1907, until March 1, 1909. Deposits, however, began to increase early in 1908, time deposits rising from \$395,000,000, March 1, to \$430,000,000 December 31. In the same period demand deposits increased from \$140,000,000 to \$210,000,000, while the cash reserve moved up from \$75,000,000 to \$100,000,000. The banks being unable to employ their idle funds in Canada during this year, put them out on call in the New York market. The item "call loans elsewhere" (see Chart VIII, page 122,) rose from \$41,000,000, December 1, 1907, to \$106,000,000, December 31, 1908, and by the end of May, 1909, had climbed to \$125,000,000. This is a much larger sum of money than the Canadian banks care to employ in the call-loan market.

During 1907 the banks gradually reduced the amount of call loans in Canada by about \$11,000,000. The funds thus released were loaned to merchants, manufacturers, and the buyers of grain. In 1908 this item began to increase, the banks having more money than was needed by business interests. They adopted the same policy with current loans outside of Canada, reducing these during 1907 from \$36,000,000 to \$23,000,000. In 1908 this item began to increase.

Chart VIII (page 122) makes an interesting exhibit of the use the chartered banks made of the several elements of their reserve in 1907. Early in the year, in anticipation of a strain, they began to increase the cash reserve, at the same time calling loans in New York and reducing foreign balances. Between May and October they loaned rather

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freely in the New York call-money market, but during October and November they reduced their outside call loans by \$20,000,000. Their credit balances and call loans outside of Canada both increased greatly in the first seven months of 1908, when the demand for money was small in Canada. In the last quarter of 1908 the decline in foreign credit balances explains the rapid increase in outside call loans. Throughout 1909 the banks had resources beyond the needs of Canada, and the outside call loans rose to \$138,000,000, an increase of nearly \$100,000,000 in two years. In the same two years the cash reserve rose from \$80,000,000 to \$105,000,000, and the amount of securities held from \$71,000,000 to \$86,000,000. It is interesting to note that the amount of securities varied but little during 1907. It was not a good year for bonds.

TWO INTERESTING BANK FAILURES.

The story of banking is not without its dramatic incidents in any country. Canada has probably had fewer such incidents in the last generation than most countries, yet there was a bank failure in 1906 which furnished unique details. On the evening of October 12 the bankers in Toronto and Montreal heard with surprise that the Bank of Ontario had got beyond its depth and would not open its doors the next morning. Its capital was \$1,500,000 and its deposits \$12,000,000. The leading bankers in the Dominion dreaded the effect which the failure of such a bank might have. The Bank of Montreal agreed to take over the assets and pay all the liabilities, provided a number of other banks would agree to share

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with it any losses. Its offer was accepted and a representative of the Bank of Montreal took the night train for Toronto. Going breakfastless to the office of the Bank of Ontario he found the directors at the end of an all-night session and laid before them resolutions officially transferring the business and accounts of the bank to the Bank of Montreal. They adopted the resolution before 9 a. m. and the bank opened business for the day with the following notice over its door: "This is the Bank of Montreal."

Before 1 o'clock the same notice, painted on a board or penciled on brown wrapping paper, was over the door of the 31 branches in different parts of the Dominion. Its customers were astonished that day when they went to the bank, but none of them took alarm and many of them were well pleased with the change. The note holders and depositors were paid in full and it is generally understood that the venture was a profitable one for the Bank of Montreal, although litigation is still pending over the double liability of the stockholders. The general manager of the Bank of Ontario, who had sunk its capital in Wall street, received a five years' sentence for making false statements with regard to the bank's affairs.

FIRST OUTBREAK OF HIGH FINANCE.

One other large bank has been in trouble since 1890. It was the Sovereign Bank, an institution having over 80 branches and \$16,000,000 in deposits. It was established in 1903 and was managed by an artist in "high finance," the only one of that class, it is claimed, who ever controlled

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a big Canadian bank. It is claimed that he was backed by large financial houses in New York and in Germany. He was reckless both in spending and in lending money, and early in 1907, when the assets amounted to over \$25,000,000, it became known that much of its paper was valueless. The capital stock was reduced and a new management was placed in charge, but in January, 1908, the bankers of Toronto and Montreal were informed that the Sovereign would be obliged to suspend unless it received assistance. On the 18th of January its business was taken over by 12 banks which guaranteed the creditors against loss. The branches of the bank were divided among these 12 institutions, and report has it that some of the general managers were for a time unable to find all the branches that had been allotted to them. The manager of the Sovereign, in his search for communities needing branch banks, had got ahead of both map makers and the post-office department. The assets of the bank are not proving equal to the liabilities, but the guaranteeing banks are protected from loss by the double liability of the stockholders.

The circumstances attending the liquidation of these two large banks certainly strengthen the view advanced in the early part of this chapter with regard to the solidarity or unity of the Canadian system. Bankers still shake their heads ruefully over the havoc wrought by the Sovereign and over the changes it made in banking practices, whereby various minor profits were annihilated, and declare that if another specialist in "high finance" appears among them they will let him and his friends

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take their medicine. "The banks can not go on forever," they say "standing between the people and a rotten bank." Like the directors of the Bank of England, the presidents and managers of the big banks in Canada deny that any responsibility rests upon them for the protection of the country's financial security, yet when the next pinch comes the situation itself will compel them in self-defense to act together both quickly and effectively.

Since 1889 six small banks have failed, but note holders have lost nothing and depositors very little. They were local institutions with few branches and their failures possess little significance in a study of the banking system as a whole.

CHAPTER IX.

CONCLUSION.

We have seen that the Canadian banking system possesses features of extraordinary merit, adapting it admirably to the needs of the country which it serves. It performs most efficiently the service for which banks are created, gathering up the country's idle capital and placing it in channels of useful employment. The assets of the banks are of high quality because of protection afforded by the law and because borrowers are prevented by custom from hawking their paper through brokers. The law leaves the banks such freedom in the use of their credit that business is never brought to a halt through lack of instruments of exchange; whether the need be for checks and drafts or for bank notes, the supply is always adequate. The redemption system insures perfect elasticity for both the note and deposit currency. The reserve seems to be abundant for the protection of the liabilities and to be composed of elements sufficiently liquid and available. Finally, on account of the extent to which the larger banks are interested in the trade and industries of all parts of the Dominion because of the investments made through their branches, the system possesses a solidarity that makes possible united action in the face of a common peril.

IS THERE A WEAK SPOT?

Would Canada's banking system stand a real strain? Is its gold reserve large enough? Does it not depend too

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much on London and New York? If England should withdraw her invested capital, or send no more, would not this banking system break down? Questions of this sort, which are sometimes asked, imply that Canada's system contains a weak but hitherto undiscovered spot, and most of the critics are inclined to think it lies in the smallness of the gold reserve. In the writer's opinion Canada's financial position is of the strongest. Comparatively little gold is needed for the reason that the banks have developed an almost perfect credit system. The people have unquestioning confidence in the credit instruments provided by the banks and never demand that they be converted into gold. Credit settles all debts between the banks and the public. Gold is used only between banks and in the foreign exchanges, and in the latter field a credit balance in London or New York is more useful than a stock of gold in Montreal or Toronto. If England and the United States some day suddenly stop sending capital to Canada, the country will undoubtedly suffer, but the notion that Canada will at once be called on to export large quantities of gold in payment for the imported merchandise now paid for with bills of exchange created by English investments, is crudely mercantilistic. Canada's imports, of course, would decline the moment English capital ceased coming, and the present "unfavorable balance" of trade disappear. There is no likelihood, however, that Canada will cease to draw capital from abroad. It is estimated that England has sent her a round billion dollars in the last ten years, and prospects are much brighter now than they were in 1900.

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THE REST-FUND FAD.

The bankers of Canada may some day have cause to regret having allowed a condition to arise which made necessary the amendment of the bank act in 1908 permitting them to issue notes in excess of their paid-up capital, yet at the present time they seem rather complacent over their power to issue an "emergency" circulation. This is surprising, for it is in conflict with the principles upon which the Canadian system is based, and, furthermore, would have been entirely unnecessary if the banks within the last ten years had taken pains to see that the amount of their paid-up capital had increased in the same proportion as their business. In the ten years following 1899 the paid-up capital of the banks increased from \$64,000,000 to \$96,000,000, a gain of about 50 per cent. In the same period the deposits of the banks grew from \$298,000,000 to \$640,000,000, a gain of 115 per cent. The ratio of capital to deposit liabilities was suffered to decline steadily during this period. Meantime the rest or surplus was increased from \$30,000,000, or about 50 per cent of the capital in 1899, to \$74,000,000, or about 75 per cent of the capital, at the end of 1908. The banks have made the mistake of increasing their rest funds rather than their capital. During these ten years they added \$44,000,000 to the rest or surplus. If half of this sum had been added to the capital, the banks would have had in 1907 a total paid-up capital of at least \$115,000,000 and would have been abundantly able to satisfy the needs of that year. They would then not have been obliged to ask for the right to issue a taxed circulation and would not

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have exposed themselves, as they have done, to the risk of having a tax imposed on all their notes. If it is right to tax the notes issued in excess of the paid-up capital, people are asking, why is it not right and proper that the banks should pay a tax on all their circulation?

Sentiment seems to have had most to do with the increase of the rest fund.^a There is a popular notion, and the banks have done a good deal to create it, that a bank's solidity and prosperity are somehow measured by the size of its rest fund, and the banks have engaged in unreasonable competition to bring their rests up to the highest possible amounts. Furthermore, bank directors and managers like to have the market prices of their stocks steadily climbing upward. If they divided part of their profits among stockholders in the form of a stock dividend, there has always been the fear that the market price of the stock in consequence would decline and the bank somehow be injured. Bank directors also take pride in the maintenance of a regular rate of dividend. If they can increase the rate and at the same time add a proper amount to their rest fund, well and good, but they shrink

^a The general manager of one of the largest banks said to the writer: "I consider the new emergency law allowing a bank to issue, during certain seasons of the year, 15 per cent of their capital and surplus in additional bank notes by paying a tax, as very unscientific. We have had no real need to increase our capital stock to supply additional notes. The only time there has not been an ample supply of notes was during the crop-moving season of 1907. This season and the panic came together; otherwise we could have handled the situation satisfactorily. Only five banks have ever taken advantage of the new law. With our present powers we have for the most of the year a large amount of our notes on hand that we can not keep in circulation. Then there is a tax on capital stock, so the greater our capital the greater the burden of taxes. The banks take pride in their surplus fund and do not want it disturbed. By adding to it we show that we are gaining in strength each year."

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from increasing the capital stock at the expense of the dividend rate. For all these reasons the Canadian banks during the last prosperous decade have failed to make their capital account grow with their business and are now paying the penalty, for there is no reason in the nature of things why a Canadian bank should be obliged to pay a high tax upon any portion of the currency which the country requires. It is quite possible, of course, that the banks are not paying their due share of taxes. But this possibility furnishes no excuse for a tax on circulating notes. Such a tax in the long run is always paid by the people. In one way or another, either by the exaction of a high rate of interest or by the imposition of unusually hard conditions, banks will probably force their customers to pay the tax on the emergency circulation. Nevertheless the banks will have the annoyance of payment, and few of them will realize that the tax is shifted.

It may occur to some readers that perhaps the government imposed a tax on the "emergency circulation" in order to compel its retirement at the end of the crop-moving season. Such a thought was in nobody's mind when the law was passed. Everybody knew that the notes, whether taxed or not, would be retired automatically in January. However, the country's business is growing so rapidly that some of the banks, if they do not increase their capital, may very soon have difficulty keeping their circulation within limits even during the dull months. Since the business of the banks, as indicated by their deposits and loans, is increasing at a much faster pace than their circulation, the natural and proper increase of the capital account should be sufficient in the future to permit an untaxed circulation adequate at all seasons of the year.

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HAVE CANADIAN BANKERS A MONOPOLY?

The people of Canada generally speak of their banking system with a good deal of pride and satisfaction. Many of them know that it has been called one of the best in the world, and are not slow to mention this fact when critics appear from abroad. Home critics, however, are not lacking.

One of the commonest charges against the banks is that they possess a monopoly of the money power. This is not surprising, for the banks pursue a policy of secretiveness which gives outsiders the impression that somehow they are leagued together in a manner prejudicial to the interests of the public. In the writer's opinion this impression is not justified, yet it must be admitted that Canadian bankers are a bit too secretive. They are unwilling to give out any more information about their affairs than the law compels, as is shown, for instance, by their reluctance to let the public know the facts about banking operations in the different provinces. In the United States, by the aid of the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency and of the state banking departments, one can study the development of banking in any state or even in a small community. In Canada bankers will make general statements about the growth and prosperity of certain sections of the country, as indicated by the number of new branches established, which are matters of newspaper report, but they do not want any discussion of the sources from which the funds are drawn for the maintenance of these new branches. The inquirer should be satisfied with the general statement that the bank's resources are growing, so

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that it is always ready to take care of new business. That the additional funds come from communities whose loanable funds exceed the amount they are willing to use at the current rate of interest, is a fact that the banks do not care to advertise. There is also the policy of the banks with regard to government examinations. The banks hold that they can examine themselves better than the government can and that no bank should be called on to open its books to outsiders. It is also understood that the banks act together in matters of legislation. No bill affecting the interests of banks can get into the Dominion parliament, or into a provincial legislature, without the fact being known within twenty-four hours to practically all bank presidents and general managers. The writer could find no reason for believing that the banks were actuated in any of these matters by improper motives. Yet the secretiveness and effectiveness of their policy do give the politician as well as the demagogue some excuse for hostility.^a

The tendency in Canadian banking, as in all forms of business activity, is unmistakably toward combination. The chartered banks possess no monopoly now, but the situation is such that the large banks have a great ad-

^a It is interesting to have the view of an "outsider" among the banks. One of the smaller banks insisted on paying depositors at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and was in consequence expelled from the Toronto clearing house. Its general manager talked to the writer as follows:

"The older banks demand that no bank pay more than 3 per cent interest on its deposits. Deposits are worth more than that. Up to a decade or so ago it was the custom and was expected that all new banks would pay one-half to one per cent more interest on deposits than the older banks did. Now the large banks, which dominate the policy of the clearing houses, say to us younger banks that if we pay more than 3 per cent interest we can not have the privileges of the clearing house. By the use

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vantage over the small ones and seem destined to get most of the new business that will be created in Canada in coming years. Their prestige assures their branches a welcome in every new community. No business is too large for their resources, and none is so small as to be despised. They are able to open more new branches than their small competitors, and can much better afford, if need be, to operate them for a time at a loss. It will not be surprising, therefore, if Canada has fewer banks ten years hence than now. One or two mergers would give the country a bank as dominant in its field as is the Bank of France or Bank of Germany.

BANK INSPECTION BY OUTSIDERS.

The system of bank inspection, satisfactory as it is from the general manager's point of view, does not altogether satisfy the public, and will doubtless be amended in 1910. Under the present system the branches are very closely watched by the head office, but nobody examines the head office. Theoretically, the directors are supposed to keep a sharp eye upon the general manager and to be able to prevent him from making improper use of a bank's funds. As a matter of fact, however, boards of directors in Canada

of this club they have forced several of the younger banks not to pay over 3 per cent and thus prevented their giving the depositor the interest he deserved and prevented the new bank from being a real competitor of the older banks.

"This is the only bank that they could not force into line, so I am denied the use of the clearing house here. The other banks in the city have to send their messengers around to us every day with our notes and checks. We get rid of their notes and checks by simply depositing them with one of the clearing-house banks. I find that I can get along very well without the use of the clearing house and my not belonging to it puts them to a great deal more trouble than it does me."

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do not always direct. The careers of the Bank of Ontario and the Sovereign Bank show that it is not impossible for a speculative general manager to keep a board of directors very much in the dark as to the character of his transactions and the value of the bank's assets. At any rate, the opinion is growing in Canada among bank shareholders and in business circles that the chartered banks ought to be subject to some sort of outside supervision or examination. In some quarters inspection by government officials is favored. This is opposed by the banks on the ground that government examiners would usually be incompetent, the task of examining a bank with a hundred or more branches being a very difficult one. Some of their critics say that the real reason why the larger banks are against any system of government inspection is because they fear it would lessen their advantage by giving an unearned prestige to their smaller competitors, many people being likely to think that one bank must be as good as another if the government has its eye on all.

Logically the power of inspection ought to be invested in the Canadian Bankers' Association. This body now has supervision of the circulation, but it has no authority to make any investigation of a bank's affairs. Since it represents both the government and the banks, it would seem that it ought to have the power to protect the interests of both. The associated bankers should certainly be able to devise an inspection system which, while not injuring the interests of any particular bank, would both satisfy and protect the public. If they do not do this, the politicians will probably insist upon some form of government examination.

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NEED OF EDUCATION.

Being a teacher, the writer must express his regret because of the seeming indifference of Canadian bankers with regard to the education of their employees. When a boy at the age of 15 enters a Canadian bank, he leaves all hope of education behind. He will learn a great deal "by doing" and by contact with strong and successful men, but he will have little chance to improve his mind by systematic study or through attendance upon lectures. His hours will be long and, from the American point of view, his pay will be small. If he has an iron constitution, sound nerves, and an unconquerable stomach, together with a clear head, a steady will, and a good character, he will some day be manager of a branch and perhaps a general manager. But he will have to work out his own salvation without the aid or encouragement of the world's best thought and experience. It is to be hoped that the older bankers of Canada will get a conviction of sin on this subject and through their Bankers' Association make some provision for the intellectual growth of the young fellows in their employ. If they fail on this score, the time may come when the staffs of the Canadian banks, despite their prestige, may no longer contain men of the quality necessary to the making of a first-class general manager.^a

^a Banks are already losing their charm for young men. Said a general manager in Montreal:

"Twenty years ago there was a long waiting list—often as high as 150 boys—from the best families, who were desirous of entering into the service of the bank. But of late years the commercial development of the country has been such that the young men are entering other lines of business where perhaps the inducements are greater. Now there is not only no waiting list, but we find it hard to get young men of the standard we used to get."

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APPENDIXES.

APPENDIX A.

MEMORANDA AND LEGISLATION RELATING TO CURRENCY IN 1907 AND 1908.

I.

[P. C. 2501.]

*Extract from a Report of the Committee of the Privy Council,
approved by the Governor-General on the 12th November,
1907.*

On a memorandum dated 11th November, 1907, from the minister of finance, calling attention to certain conditions of an exceptional nature existing at the present time in connection with the important business of moving to the world market the grain crop of western Canada, which conditions seem to call for governmental action, the minister observes that throughout the financial stringency which has been and is being felt in all the money markets of the world the general business of Canada so far has stood well. At such a time, however, all loaning business must be conducted more conservatively than at other times. The banks, finding it difficult to readily turn into cash resources which under normal conditions are of an easily realizable character, deem it necessary to restrict to some extent their commercial credits.

In the case of the grain trade of the Northwest special conditions have arisen to which the attention of the minister of finance has recently been drawn.

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Experience shows that a very limited quantity of grain can be brought to the seaboard by the present railway facilities. The successful movement of the crop is dependent largely on water transportation. The present season of lake navigation will close in about a month. The crop of 1907 has been somewhat later than usual, and accordingly the pressure of moving it falls within a short period. An unusually large percentage of the harvest, it is represented, particularly in Saskatchewan and Alberta, consists of low-grade wheat, for which there is at present an available market at good prices in eastern Canada and abroad, but which, if not brought out before the close of navigation, will have to be carried over at a heavy loss, owing to deterioration, which, it is represented, will take place if the wheat be stored for the winter.

The prospect of insufficient financial accommodation to move the crop is the cause of much anxiety in the West among farmers, traders, and bankers, and urgent appeals have been made to the government to devise some means of meeting the temporary difficulty. The question can not be deemed a local one, affecting the West only, inasmuch as the satisfactory marketing of the crop has an important bearing upon the trade and commerce of the Dominion at large. In other branches of business, no doubt, the financial stringency is felt, but the necessity of moving the grain crop before the close of lake navigation, now so near at hand, creates exceptional conditions which seem to demand exceptional action.

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The minister of finance has given careful consideration to representations which have reached him through commercial bodies and government officials in the West, and has had communications with leading bankers, who agree that the situation is a serious one, which calls for some relief.

In the opinion of the minister the only way in which relief can properly be granted by the government is by placing the banks handling this class of business in a position to provide the necessary credits to responsible parties. For this purpose the minister recommends that he be authorized to advance, upon the security hereinafter mentioned, to chartered banks to be designated by him, being banks which are engaged in the business of financing the moving of the grain crop of the Northwest to the seaboard, such sums of money as he may deem reasonable and proper, not to exceed in the aggregate \$10,000,000, such advances to be accepted by the said banks upon the condition that the moneys are to be employed in the creation or enlargement of credits to parties in the grain trade, either as producers or dealers, for the purpose of assisting in the transportation of the crop from the West to the seaboard during the present season.

The minister further recommends that such advances be made upon the deposit by the said banks of such high-class securities as they may be able to offer and of which the minister of finance may approve.

The minister further recommends that he be authorized to appoint a competent advisory committee to assist him

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in the carrying out of the proposed arrangements; that such committee be composed of Mr. E. S. Clouston, general manager of the Bank of Montreal; Mr. Thomas Fyshe, late general manager of the Merchants' Bank of Canada; and Mr. J. M. Courtney, C. M. G., I. S. O., late deputy minister of finance; and that no securities offered by the said banks for the advances herein referred to be approved by the minister of finance unless they have first been approved by the said advisory committee.

The minister further recommends that any bank which may avail itself of the assistance herein recommended shall be required to pay to the government interest at the rate of 6 per cent per annum on such advances for a period of three months, and that for any period after the said three months the rate of interest to be paid shall be at the rate of 7 per cent per annum; that all sums so advanced shall be repayable by the banks to the government on or before the 1st day of May, 1908; that the securities deposited by the banks be returned to them from time to time in proportion as the advances are repaid, and that upon the repayment of such advances to the government the authority to issue the additional notes herein referred to be canceled and the note circulation be thereafter governed by the provisions of the existing law.

As to the manner in which the moneys for the proposed advances are to be provided, the minister observes that the funds in hand are not more than sufficient to meet the ordinary requirements of the government's business, and that in the present condition of the money market, when the Bank of England rate of discount has been advanced

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to the high rate of 7 per cent, the borrowing of this money by the issue of treasury bills would be unusually difficult and a rate of interest would undoubtedly have to be paid which might have an injurious effect on the general credit of the Dominion. For these reasons the minister recommends that he be authorized to issue such additional amount of Dominion notes as may be necessary, not exceeding in all the said amount of \$10,000,000. A strict compliance with the terms of the Dominion notes act would require that such an issue be made against the deposit of an equal amount of gold in the treasury. For the reasons already stated, it would be exceedingly difficult to comply with the letter of the provisions of the law in this respect. The minister of finance is of opinion that under such circumstances the government might properly issue such notes against the deposit by the banks of high-class securities to be approved, as hereinbefore stated, by the advisory committee and the minister of finance. The government would, in the opinion of the minister, be fully protected against loss in the transaction, inasmuch as they would have, in addition to the deposit of the high-class securities before referred to, the general credit of all the banks which might avail themselves of the advance; and in this connection it is to be noted that the government have priority of claim against the banks over all other creditors except note holders. In the opinion of the minister, therefore, although the arrangement proposed would be a technical departure from the terms of the Dominion notes act, such departure is justified by the exceptional circumstances above mentioned.

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The minister further recommends that, at the ensuing session, Parliament be asked to enact a bill of indemnity confirming and sanctioning the proceedings herein recommended in so far as they require, for their validity, legal confirmation or sanction.

The committee submit the same for approval.

RODOLPHE BOUDREAU,
Clerk of the Privy Council.

II.

[P. C. 2631.]

*Extract from a Report of the Committee of the Privy Council,
approved by the Governor-General on the 26th November,
1907.*

On a memorandum, dated 20th November, 1907, from the minister of finance, recommending with a view to the taking of prompt action in the case of any bank which may desire to avail itself of the aids proposed in the order in council of November 12, 1907, for the handling of the western grain crop, that the said order in council be amended to the following effect:

That the advances to be made to the banks be made through the Bank of Montreal.

That the Bank of Montreal, acting on behalf of the government, be authorized to advance such sum or sums as may be required, not exceeding in all \$10,000,000, for the purpose set forth in the said order in council of November 12, at such rate or rates of interest, not less than 4 per cent per annum, as the said Bank of Montreal may deem fair and reasonable.

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That the Bank of Montreal shall pay to the government such sums as it may receive by way of interest from the banks to which such advances shall be made.

That, for the purpose of providing the funds necessary for such advances, the minister of finance shall deposit in the Bank of Montreal from time to time Dominion notes equal to the amounts so advanced.

That the Bank of Montreal shall receive from the banks to which such advances shall be made such securities as are deemed by the Bank of Montreal satisfactory, and that such securities shall be held by the Bank of Montreal in trust for the government against the issue of Dominion notes herein referred to, but such securities may be released from time to time as the advances may be repaid by the banks.

That the Bank of Montreal, besides holding the said securities in trust for the government as aforesaid, shall become responsible to the government for all advances so made and shall guarantee the repayment of such advances to the minister of finance on or before the 1st day of May, 1908.

That for its services in the management of the business and for guaranteeing repayment of advances so to be made, the Bank of Montreal shall be paid a fair and reasonable commission to be hereafter fixed by the Governor-General in council.

The committee submit the same for approval.

RODOLPHE BOUDREAU,
Clerk of the Privy Council.

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III.

AN ACT Respecting a certain issue of Dominion notes.

[Assented to 20th July, 1908.]

Whereas for the purposes set forth in an order in council of the 12th day of November, 1907, and an amending order in council of the 26th day of November, 1907, copies of which with related documents have been laid before Parliament, and pursuant to the said orders the minister of finance, between the 20th day of November, 1907, and the 3d day of January, 1908, from time to time issued and made advances of Dominion notes to the amount of \$5,315,000, the greatest amount of such notes at any time issued and outstanding being \$5,115,000; and whereas, with respect to the greater part of the last-mentioned amount, security in the form required by section 5 of the Dominion notes act was not held; and whereas it is expedient, in so far as the said issue and the making of the said advances require legal confirmation, that they be confirmed; therefore His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

1. The issue of Dominion notes and all things done under the provisions of the orders in council cited in the preamble are hereby confirmed, and shall be deemed to have been duly authorized.

APPENDIX B.

THE COOPERATIVE PEOPLE'S BANKS OF CANADA.

By ALPHONSE DESJARDINS,^a *President and Manager of "La Caisse Populaire de Lévis."*

The perplexing problem of adequately and safely supplying the financial needs of the laboring and farming classes is one that has long attracted the attention of thinkers and philanthropists. It was in this connection that the *Mont de piété* was originated in Italy several hundred years ago, traces of which are still to be found in many large cities of Europe. Although based upon a very commendable desire to help those who were in great need of money and credit, the methods evolved proved very often inadequate, depending almost entirely upon the charity or benevolence of those who took upon themselves the onerous duty of providing the necessary funds to carry on the operations of those institutions. In fact, the *Mont de piété* was almost purely a charitable establishment, appealing in no way to the energetic and invigorating sentiment of self-help through the redeeming practice of saving. As was to be expected, the defects of this system became more and more apparent as time went on, and with the gradual dwindling of the enthusiasm on which it was founded, the institution itself waned through want of the necessary funds. Hence, the unfortunate

^a M. Desjardins was the originator of this movement in Canada, and, in fact, on this continent. He organized the cooperative bank of Lévis, of which he has ever since been the president and manager.

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borrowers of the working classes had again to call upon the usurers and pay, as theretofore, extortionate rates for loans of every description. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that a practical method was discovered, and half a century of success has proved how sound and reliable this new system is when applied with common sense and with due regard to local requirements and circumstances.

It is to Germany that we owe the fundamental idea of this most beneficent and practical innovation. Schulze-Delitsch and Raiffeisen, without concerted action, but animated by the same idea of helping the poor, devised systems, similar in principle, whereby the use of credit, so advantageous in the higher spheres of trade and industry, could safely be extended to the masses of the people—the small folk, farmers, laborers, and the like. The first experiments with the new system were made about the year 1850. It was, however, some years before its safety and feasibility were generally recognized, even in Germany, whence it gradually spread to other countries. But its subsequent development has been marvelous, and it has taken a firm root almost everywhere with equal success when the pioneers have been wise enough, as was the case with Signor Luigi Luzzatti in Italy, to take into due consideration the circumstances and the prejudices with which they had to deal, and to modify it in such a way as to suit the varying conditions of their respective communities.

At the start Schulze and Raiffeisen rested their cooperative banks upon the principle of unlimited and joint liability of the members, the former requiring the coop-

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erators to provide the necessary funds by subscribing and paying large shares, with a view to impressing on the members the necessity of thrift if they would expect credit later on. Raiffeisen, on the other hand, would not admit the share feature, believing unlimited and joint liability sufficient to attract savings deposits ample enough to meet all the requirements of the borrowing members. But both Schulze and Raiffeisen insisted upon the exclusively local character of their banks, the sphere of their activity being restricted to a very small territorial area, say a ward in a large city, a parish, or a municipality in a rural district. And in this principle lies the very essence of the safety of the institution, as will be shown later on.

The subsequent elimination of the unlimited-liability feature of these banks in many countries, so far from justifying the fear entertained by the great founders of the system, has removed obstacles that would, in numerous instances, have inevitably deprived the population of the immense benefits that they have enjoyed by adopting it in a more suitable form. The illustrious father of the Italian *Banche Popolare* was the first to depart from the principle of unlimited liability, contending that in his country it was not viewed with favor by the masses, and, moreover, that it was not required for securing the necessary funds; experience, indeed, has shown that these funds have been abundant at all times. He therefore recommended a milder form of liability based on the amount of the shares subscribed; and the admirable success of his banks is evidence that he was right. The same principle is now

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being adopted even in Germany and many other countries that have closely followed the German example. Taking a still broader view of this question, and considering the decided hostility of our people to anything like wide and, therefore, more or less unknown liability, I adopted in Canada an entirely new régime similar to the prevailing system of the savings banks of the New England States, where there is no capital stock, the depositors alone providing the funds and enjoying to the fullest extent the right to withdraw their money almost at will, a mere notice being required if the necessity of so doing arises.

Our working capital is composed of shares and deposits, the difference between them being more of a moral character than a practical one, so far as the member is concerned; for his liability is the same in either case, his shares and his deposits being alike withdrawable just as are the deposits in an ordinary banking depository.

The distinction between a share and a deposit is that the former is made up of savings with a view of meeting future contingencies more or less remote, a kind of time deposit, while the latter is money put aside for almost daily use, like the bulk of the funds put in banks and withdrawable by check.

This régime of a withdrawable capital was sanctioned by law in France as long ago as 1867, with the passing of the legislation authorizing the organization of societies with a variable membership and capital, the capital being liable to variation by the admission of new members, or by the subscription of new shares on the part of the old members.

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As will be readily seen, the main idea of this system is exactly the same as is to be found in the uncaptialized savings banks of the United States, but with this most commendable feature, that the funds thus accumulated are utilized to meet the needs of the very classes from which the customers of these banks are drawn; in other words, the savings of the working classes are put at the disposal of such working people as happen to be in need of money for provident and useful purposes, not for extravagance or ill use, thus preventing their having to appeal to the professional money lenders or usurers at an enormous if not ruinous expense. One can hardly realize how beneficent such a system can be if properly worked upon practical and safe principles. Experience of more than half a century elsewhere, mainly in Europe, and of nine full years in Canada, proves conclusively that institutions of savings and credit, in the modified form above indicated, are easily and safely practicable among the humbler classes.

Now, it is obvious that such a credit system must be worked upon different methods and with safeguards distinct from those to be found in the higher banking sphere. The requirements do not very materially differ in their intrinsic nature, although larger in the latter case than in the former; but the ways and means being different, so the methods must differ.

In the banking system the capital is fixed; in the cooperative credit régime it is withdrawable, and therefore variable. Hence due regard must be had to this particular feature of divergence. The banks use to a very large

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extent borrowed capital in the shape of deposits from the general public; so do the people's cooperative banks, but in their case this capital is provided by the members either in the form of withdrawable shares or of mere deposits.

The banks do business with the general public, either borrowing on the confidence they enjoy or loaning to whosoever offers what is considered a good banking security; the cooperative people's banks are associations dealing only with their members. The banks being an aggregation of capital, the character of the shareholders is not scrutinized in any way; the cooperative people's banks being an association of persons, qualities and good habits are predominant, not the funds they can bring to the society. The banks in doing business with the general public may loan money to parties thousands of miles away; the cooperative people's banks on account of their special character do not loan funds outside their immediate vicinity—in other words, beyond the very locality where they are worked—refusing even members who have gone abroad, unless a resident member holds himself responsible for the faithful repayment of the loan and is considered perfectly reliable in every way. The banks being a concentration of capital, the capital alone is paramount, and the system of one vote one share prevails as well as the vote by proxy; the cooperative people's banks being associations of persons or individuals, the person is paramount. Hence the principle of only one vote, without regard to the number of shares held, and there is no vote by proxy, except for corporate or public bodies.

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The banks being organized by capitalists, or those that have money to spare, which they can dispense with for a long time, the amount of the share is generally a larger one than a workingman or a poor man can afford.

The cooperative people's banks being intended for people who have no money, except what they can save by very small sums, putting a few cents aside weekly, the shares must be of a few dollars only, payable by small installments. Some of the most powerful cooperative banks in Europe have started with \$4 shares, payable 2 cents a month. This and the withdrawable feature of these credit unions are necessitated by the circumstances of the desired members and are adopted in order to induce the largest possible number of the working classes to join the societies and reap the benefit they offer.

With these differences in view it is easy to realize how appropriate are the principles laid down for the management of these cooperative people's banks.

Three boards are chosen by the annual general meeting called, respectively, the board of administration, the commission on credit, and the board of supervision.

The members of each of these boards must be distinct; that is, one member can not be on two boards, exception being made for the president of the society, who is *ex officio* a member of the commission on credit, in order that he may be in a position to acquaint the board of administration with all that is done in this important body, the motives and reasons upon which its decisions are based, and the propriety of measures having for their object the increasing of the funds of the society.

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The president being, or supposed to be, the best man on this general board, and this board being selected out of the best men in the society, his moral authority is large, and so is his responsibility. It is therefore but fair that his guiding influence should be strengthened by corresponding opportunities for supervision and advice. He is, as just stated, the only exception to the rule that one person can not be member of more than one board or commission, the object of this rule being to avoid any dividing or shifting of responsibility.

Without going into every detail, let us next consider the various duties to be discharged by these boards.

The board of administration has general powers of supervision and control over the affairs of the society. It controls the admission and expulsion of members, sees to the transfer of shares, if any, makes all necessary recommendations to the general meeting in connection with the dividing of the profits of the year, the disposal of which is not already provided for in the constitution, approves or suggests any desirable amendments to the by-laws, submits to the general meeting any increase in the number of shares that may be held by, or the amount loanable to, one member, appoints the manager and other officials required, and exercises all the necessary administrative powers not specially assigned to the two other boards.

The commission on credit deals only with the loans submitted to it through the manager. It makes by-laws determining the conditions upon which the loans are to be made, the security exacted, apart from the moral

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qualities which are paramount, the rate of interest to be charged, and the proper repayment of such loans. The fixing of the rate of interest upon loans must be made with due regard to the prevailing rates in the locality for similar loans and at lowest rate consistent with safety, having in view the proper interest on the capital in order always to offer a legitimate inducement to members to increase their holdings and thereby keep abundant resources for the borrowing portion of the membership. No loan can be made unless the members present are unanimous. In case of refusal for want of unanimity, the would-be borrower can appeal to the board of administration, and the decision of this body is final. The members of the commission on credit can not borrow either directly or indirectly.

As the granting of loans must be considered to be the most important duty of the commission on credit and therefore deserving the closest attention, it must be stated here that the borrower is always requested to declare distinctly the object for which he asks the loan and how he intends to repay it. If the object is an improvident one in the opinion of the commission, it must not be granted for any consideration or under any circumstances, be the security of the highest character. No person is allowed to borrow if it is not to effect an economy or for a productive purpose. This golden rule, this essential principle, has always been enforced and has worked wonders as a measure of safety. The character and habits of the borrower, as well as of his family, have of course to be inquired carefully into in order to assure not

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only his willingness but also his ability to reimburse the loan. The moral security is paramount, and refusal must follow if this security is not forthcoming, however reliable may be the other guarantees offered, because the contrary will inevitably bring trouble and discredit upon the society. Thus honesty, industrious habits, good conduct, and thrift become valid and negotiable assets for the poor man.

The loan must be repaid regularly and faithfully. The conditions in most cases are those offered by the borrower himself, if considered reasonable and fair, but once accepted he must be held strictly to them, unless there is a case of *force majeure*, like sickness or unemployment. Punctuality is a virtue that must be taught. Its practice will confer so great advantages that the borrower himself will soon appreciate them.

The interest is usually made payable every three months, but all installments paid in are deducted from the loan, the interest being computed upon the balance only, and so on until the whole sum is repaid.

The board of administration is renewable half every year. The commission on credit and the board of supervision are elected every year, and are composed, say, the former of four and the latter of three members. But of course the number will vary according to circumstances.

The powers of the board of supervision are of the widest character, including the ordinary duties of auditors. In fact, its functions may be best described as those of a general meeting sitting *en permanence* alongside the officers chosen to administer the affairs of the society. This board may, and in some stated cases must, call at any

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time a general meeting and submit to it, as representing the whole society, an account of the acts of the commission on credit.

Officers and members of the boards give their services gratuitously. None can receive one cent either as remuneration or indemnity. The manager and clerks, if any, alone are paid.

The boards meet as often as the affairs of the society require. The manager, whose duties are very important and whose services are most valuable to insure the success of the association, should be selected, with care and wisdom, from among the members, or must become a member before being appointed.

In a democratic organization like the one here described, it is hardly necessary to add that the general meeting is supreme, and intervenes as often as required. It must further be remarked that it fixes from time to time the maximum amount of shares that a member can hold, the maximum amount that can be loaned at one time to a member, the annual dividend to be paid on shares, and the percentage of the net profits to be appropriated annually for the guarantee fund, or other funds, if any.

Apart from good management, certain principles must be strictly adhered to if the success of such an association is to be assured. Of these the most important is that the bank, to be truly cooperative—that is, in order to arouse the interest of every one of its members and to induce them to extend to it the benefit of their own personal experience—must restrict its activity to a very small

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area, or if formed in a trade union or some similar organization, then it should not go beyond the membership of such a society to enlist members. The object being to associate together people that have a mutual knowledge of their moral worth, this could not be easily attained if the credit union were to accept members over a large area of territory or from the population of a large city.

True, there are instances in Europe where such co-operative banks have been very successful in large cities, the *Banche Popolare di Milano*, called the jewel of co-operative credit of Italy, being the most striking example. Without denying the force of such cases, I believe that, as a matter of principle and safety, it is better to restrict the field and make it as narrow as possible, consistent with the requirements of the existing circumstances. Above all, in America, where the population is more fluid, so to speak, not having to the same degree that character of permanency which is to be found in European cities, this principle offers a safeguard that can not be dispensed with without grave danger. It must be borne in mind that the object is not to create huge concerns with large funds at their disposal, but small societies for the benefit of the masses, where needs can be attended to with a comparatively small amount of loanable capital. Moreover, the union, moving in such a small sphere of activity, is less liable to be deceived by borrowers as to their good character, the honest utilization of the funds, their standing, and their means to repay the loan as agreed, all of which must be ascertained before the money is handed over.

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Borrowers have also to state distinctly for what object they want loans, and after the proper officers have satisfied themselves that such object is a good one—that the parties will in all probability benefit by it—that their experience, their good judgment, industry, and energy will successfully utilize the funds put at their disposal—these officers, by the fact that the transactions are only local, are in a much better position to follow up the borrowers and ascertain that the money is faithfully invested in the way stated. Thus this rule tends to the safety of the union and protects it against losses—a view which is confirmed by practical everyday experience, as will be shown later on.

When a member is admitted, the board of administration has to be satisfied that he is honest, upright, and industrious; furthermore, a new inquiry is made when the same individual applies for a loan. The commission on credit has to look carefully into his character and be certain that the would-be borrower possesses the required qualities, for these moral assets are the very groundwork of his credit. A man may not be wealthy, but nothing prevents him from being honest, thrifty, and industrious, and with such qualities he will in most, if not all, cases be able to repay the amount borrowed. This, again, can much more easily be ascertained if the cooperative bank has but a narrow field of activity. However, all this does not preclude the association from taking additional measures of security in the way of indorsers or other substantial guaranty, which, indeed, is generally done until the borrower has established a first-class

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reputation for himself by his punctuality in meeting his installments or payments when due.

Moreover, the amount that can be loaned at any time to one member is always passed upon by the general annual meeting, having, of course, due regard to the funds available and the necessity of providing useful employment for all the money at the disposal of the society. Thus the danger or possibility of loaning too large an amount to one individual is surely avoided.

Loans may be made for a long time, even for ten or fifteen years, provided the installment plan is adopted, once the guaranty fund has reached a certain proportion of the general assets. Furthermore, it is a very strict and rigidly enforced rule that the smaller the loans the greater is the preference they enjoy; in other words, the small borrower has always the preference over the larger one, this being considered as consistent with the spirit and object of the society.

The stability of such a credit union is increased and insured by the rapid formation of a guaranty fund, to be eventually equal to, if not more than, the maximum amount of paid-up shares. This fund is early accumulated by means of annual contributions from the net profits. These contributions should be relatively large to begin with, say, 20 per cent, or one-fifth of the net earnings. When, as will soon be the case, the fund shall have reached an amount affording a fairly substantial security, the percentage can be lowered safely, not less than 5 per cent, however, until the said fund is completed as provided for.

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The shares being withdrawable in order better to meet the requirements of the poor, for whose benefit these unions or cooperative banks are designed, the guaranty fund above described was devised so as to offset any tendency to instability entailed by that feature. In the New England savings-bank system the law fixes a very small percentage of the annual net earnings as a contribution to such a fund, the total amount of which is only from 5 to 15 per cent of the deposits held. This fund is to meet possible losses in the investments of the banks.

In our cooperative people's banks the same fund has an additional object, being regarded as the real nonwithdrawable capital of the society, and this explains why it is allowed to accumulate until it reaches an amount equal to the total of the paid-up shares.

Thus, by perseverance and stringent provision for the stability of the institution, the laboring and farming classes are enabled to create a treasury owned and controlled by themselves, to which they and their descendants may look for credit; ineed, doing along this line what is done in other spheres of activity, as, for instance, in the municipal life, where future generations will enjoy the benefit of all the improvements made by their predecessors.

The guaranty fund has also the advantage of increasing the confidence and the interest felt by the members, on which depend the vitality and the very existence of their association.

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One striking feature of these cooperative credit unions is that they are excellent local savings banks, stimulating thrift, bringing out hoarded money, and thus conferring on the general community the benefits resulting from capital properly invested. However small a village may be, it can organize such a union, which will offer to its people all the benefits of the ordinary bank—except, of course, the peculiar advantages derived from its larger sphere of action—and will extend the practice of thrift to almost every home in the immediate locality.

To sum up, the cooperative bank that I have endeavored thus to describe borrows from and lends to its members. It borrows from them by receiving their savings, either in the shape of shares or mere deposits, for thrift must precede credit. This is a fundamental principle which it would be dangerous to depart from, even if it could be done.

The advantages of such cooperative banks are very numerous and far-reaching, among which the following are, perhaps, the most striking:

Their close proximity to the saver and borrower.

Their adaptability to local wants of all kinds, and their ability, through the enjoyment of local confidence, to attract the available resources of the community.

Their familiarity with their clients who are the members, and their influence over them arising from their all being members of the same labor union or residents of the same village, town, or city ward.

Their special mechanism allowing them to make the smallest loans and to undertake transactions of the pet-

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tiest kind, in compliance with local needs, preference, indeed, being deliberately given to the humbler demands.

Their ability to assist in a general or particular liquidation of debts, especially in the case of farmers whose property is heavily mortgaged and where the repayment is made burdensome by provisions of an onerous character.

Their ability to work cheaply, almost gratuitously, being thus in a position to supply cheap credit to their members.

Their accumulation of local savings and the profits thereupon, until they form a capital for the benefit of the members and borrowers.

Their ability to act as agents for their members in certain circumstances and outside their restricted field of activity, more especially for the benefit of farmers, whose needs of this kind are greater than those of the workmen.

Their power of influencing borrowers toward a beneficent use of credit and of supervising the utilization of loans in accordance with contract.

Their tendency to group themselves into federations for mutual help, development, inspection, instruction, and audit.

Their steady and continuous educative influence in matters of thrift, association, and self-help, by their constant presence, their daily object lessons, by their frequent though easy calls upon the activity, thought, and services of their members.

Their tendency to develop high forms of individual capacity, of public life, and of national character, and,

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last and most desirable, their powerful influence in calling forth habits of thrift, economy, and prudence, guiding expenditure into productive channels, granting credit for productive and useful purposes only, and in promoting union and associated action among units which, but for them, would be isolated and ineffective.

Being administered by responsible officers of the local population's own choice these local banks, of which everyone can be a member, soon and rightly gain the confidence of everyone. Unlike the ordinary savings banks, they have not a mere slot in their wall through which to receive money, but a mouth wherewith to give advice, a heart wherewith to feel, and a credit organization designed and specially fitted to help by loans the very people who provide the funds. In their keeping the depositor or member—for both are one and the same individual—may, so to speak, see his money, see it safely held, see it laid out profitably in the locality, benefiting the district and producing more money, whereas elsewhere it disappears into the large monetary market, absorbed in huge financial schemes sometimes worked out for the squeezing or the economic detriment of the consumers, while the poor men, the very clients who have contributed to the accumulation of this wealth, are, as a class, the victims of extortionate money lenders. Organized by and entirely under the direct control of the farmers and laborers who are almost the entire *clientèle* of these money lenders, the cooperative banks offer the best means of putting an end to the frightful cancer of usury that is causing so much suffering in this very part of the body politic. It is an

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undeniable fact that no law, no matter how stringent or how rigidly enforced, can stamp out or even lessen usury in an appreciable degree. Centuries of experience have demonstrated this truth. Usury exists because there are people who want money, and are ready to borrow it at any price where there is no organized machinery offering it at a reasonable rate. Let these people have their wants provided for in a human and business-like way, and usury will soon disappear as surely as snow melts away in the spring.

The proposal to introduce such an institution into a country often gives rise to objections, which, however, are, as a rule, based upon ignorance or a wrong conception of the real nature of these cooperative credit unions. It is, for example, often alleged that existing banks would suffer from the competition of the newcomer. But is this objection founded upon facts and has actual experience proved it to be correct?

In the first place, this new organization in no way invades the field of activity of the banks; it strikes another soil; a stratum unknown to those financial bodies. Organized to meet the needs of the highest sphere of trade industry, and for the benefit of larger enterprises, the ordinary banks have neither the equipment nor the opportunity to cater to the wants of the classes for which the cooperative banks are exclusively intended. This explains why the money lenders' business is so widespread and usury so prevalent and profitable where such an institution does not exist. People in need of money must go to the usurers for want of a better medium. Expe-

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rience has shown in Europe that the banks, even the largest, have not been slow in recognizing this fact and have, therefore, ceased to oppose the cooperative banks, nay, have even very materially aided them.

Experience, too, soon demonstrated another potent fact, namely, that these very modest financial institutions act as excellent feeders to the higher banks, by stimulating and teaching thrift in a sphere inaccessible to the latter or to any other similarly organized institutions, and by depositing the surplus funds that the cooperative banks must keep constantly available and do not utilize in their every-day transactions. I could mention here many of the largest financial institutions of the world that go out of their way to assist in the organization of such parish or cooperative banks, or, when so organized, aid them by special or preferential treatment in order to insure their success and prosperity.

Another objection is that the farming and laboring classes would be unable to work out such a scheme. But why should the farmers, laborers, artisans, and mechanics of America be less intelligent, less able to learn by practice how to manage these unions? Or are they less honest than their brethren of the various European countries, or even East India? Surely not.

Objection might also be based on the shifting character of the population, but that difficulty can be overcome by special precautions and proper safeguards. I feel confident that the genius of our American nations can easily find and apply an adequate remedy to this particular state of things, for, after all, this difficulty had to be faced

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to a certain extent by the ordinary banks, and they seem to have succeeded very well. Other means might be devised for the protection of credit unions and be as successful in their way as those chosen by the existing banking institutions.

It may also be argued that these cooperative banks would compete with the savings banks already in the field and tend to divert their funds into their own treasuries. This is hardly probable. But even if it should so happen, is that a good reason for putting aside a more perfect organization in order to avoid damaging an inferior one; for enriching the usurers by depriving the masses of the people of a means to obtain loans at a fair rate of interest? Surely the savings institutions were established to benefit the people, not to enslave them; in other words, the savings banks were instituted for the public, not the public for the savings banks. But such a fear is absolutely unfounded and need not be considered, for is it not a well-established fact that the more numerous the depositories for savings, the larger the inflow of funds? And why? Because each one of these depositories attracts its own customers, offers special inducements that tend to increase the number of its clients, and, in the end, by the accumulation of small sums, creates an ever growing capital. The savings banks themselves have not competed in a damaging way with the banks previously established, but have, on the contrary, been helpful in teaching thrift, foresight, and providence, and thereby increasing the public wealth. And the same result may confidently be expected from this new system, while its benefits will

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be larger, as it covers a larger area than the existing institutions. In fine, it is almost a truism to say that the more numerous and varied a country's savings institutions are, the higher is its development and civilization, for uncivilized nations have none.

The numerous building and loan societies of Massachusetts, together with its large and prosperous so-called "cooperative banks," are doing much good in their own way, but they restrict their activity to one particular class of transactions, namely, the purchasing of a home by the laborer. Why not, as the progressive State of Massachusetts has done, provide for all the various wants of the farmers as well as of the workingmen? Such wants can not be denied in face of the large business done by private money lenders and usurers generally, in spite of stringent laws. Why not adopt an organization that will put at the disposal of the people part of their own savings instead of utilizing them only or mainly for the advantage of large undertakings, while the wealth producers are entirely left to the tender mercy of the sharks?

Anyone who studies the existing financial fabric on this continent, seeing, as he can not fail to do, the almost helpless situation in which the farmers and workingmen are practically left so far as banking credit is concerned, will inevitably come to the conclusion that there is a missing link of a very great importance, and that missing link is the cooperative bank above described.

Such an organization would complete the financial mechanism by meeting, in a systematic way, the wants of the masses of the population, who find themselves

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to-day with no organized means for satisfying their economic needs, if we except the item of home building. It would inculcate and stimulate the habit of making small savings; it would educate—teach how capital can be formed gradually by mere cents, how it must be managed, safeguarded, multiplied by useful and provident employment; it would kill usury; it would be an excellent feeder to the ordinary banks, as shown by the practical experience of half a century; it would democratize finance, organize credit, and transform the moral qualities into valuable assets; it would instill habits of foresight, of providence, and of punctuality in promptly paying a debt when due; it would teach honesty, and bring to the man of industrious habits a higher reward than mere wages—the confidence of his fellow-citizens; it would promote the spirit of local enterprise, and facilitate improvements of all kinds; finally, it would obviate the disasters attending panics, since everyone would participate in the management of affairs, through officers representing the free choice of himself and his fellow-members.

Here again experience has shown that such a cooperative union has never been upset by a run; quite the contrary, because such an institution is not practically owned by one or a few individuals possessing the largest number of shares, and thereby having the entire control by the multiplicity of votes based upon shares, but is open to all upon the basis of a perfect equality.

A conclusive experiment has been made on this continent, and the results obtained warrant the belief that such cooperative people's banks would be amply successful

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anywhere, provided there be a faithful adherence to the principles laid down.

Lévis is a small town of 7,000 inhabitants, situated on the shores of the St. Lawrence, opposite the old city of Quebec. Its population is mostly French Canadian and of the laboring classes. It was here that "La Caisse Populaire de Lévis" was organized on the 6th of December, 1900. It did not, however, commence business until the 23d of January, 1901. Besides the town proper, the enterprise included two neighboring parishes inhabited by farmers, which had been separated from the present town some years before without, however, interrupting the daily intercourse between these farming and urban groups, so that everybody knew everybody else, as if all were still one unit. The object in including these outside parishes was to extend the experiment to a farming community in order to see how the institution would work among both classes.

Started with not a cent in the treasury, its general assets were at the close of its ninth financial year, the 30th of November, 1909, \$102,880.35. The total amount of loans had reached \$463,070.60, distributed in 3,037 accounts.

The 1,000 members of this cooperative bank, the first of its kind on the continent of America, are proud to say that as yet not one cent has been lost through bad loans or mismanagement. The workingmen and farmers have chosen the managing bodies, have provided the funds, and it was to them that the money was loaned, their honor being in most cases the main security. The total

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turnover in these nine years has reached the sum of \$617,483.45, with gross profits amounting to \$18,697.90, and a total of working expenses of \$1,774.74, although there are four branches of joint-stock banks in Levis doing, apparently, very good business. The success of the Levis experiment has spread the idea throughout all French Canada, and in less than two years 32 other similar cooperative banks in as many different places have been organized by the writer at the request of the local population desirous of benefiting by the advantages offered. Twenty-six of these credit unions are working in rural parishes and are doing most useful work both as savings and loan associations. One of them has already a general turnover of \$18,727.83 after only ten months of existence. More than 25 others will very soon be organized in the Province of Quebec alone.

Such a cooperative bank exists in Manchester, N. H., among the French-Canadian population, working mostly in the cotton mills of that city.

The movement has spread to the United States, and Massachusetts has enacted a law to further it. Other States seem inclined to follow the good example of Massachusetts and enact laws along the same lines. The prospects are hopeful and promise abundant as well as most beneficial returns for the masses of the rural and working classes.

APPENDIX C.

STATISTICS FROM CANADA YEARBOOK, 1908.

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APPENDIX C.

[Statistics from Canada Yearbook, 1908.]

(1) GENERAL STATEMENT OF CHARTERED BANKS, 1868-1908.^a

Calendar year.	Capital paid up.	Notes in circulation.	Total on deposit. ^b	Discounts to the people.	Liabilities. ^c	Assets.
1868.	\$30,507,447	\$9,350,646	\$33,653,594	\$52,299,050	\$45,144,854	\$79,860,976
1869.	30,790,137	9,539,511	40,028,090	50,433,953	50,940,226	86,283,693
1870.	33,031,249	15,149,031	48,763,205	66,276,961	65,685,870	103,197,103
1871.	37,095,340	20,914,637	56,287,391	84,799,841	80,250,974	125,273,631
1872.	45,190,085	25,296,454	61,481,452	106,744,665	90,864,688	148,862,445
1873.	54,690,561	27,165,878	65,426,042	119,274,317	98,982,668	166,056,595
1874.	60,388,340	27,904,963	77,133,754	131,680,111	116,412,392	187,921,031
1875.	64,619,513	33,035,639	74,644,446	136,029,307	104,609,356	186,255,330
1876.	66,804,398	21,245,935	72,852,686	127,621,577	99,614,014	183,499,801
1877.	65,266,009	20,704,338	74,166,287	125,681,658	99,810,731	181,019,194
1878.	63,682,863	20,475,866	70,856,253	119,682,659	95,538,831	175,450,274
1879.	62,737,276	19,486,103	73,151,425	113,485,108	96,760,113	173,548,490
1880.	60,052,117	22,529,623	85,303,814	102,166,115	111,838,941	184,276,190
1881.	59,534,977	28,516,692	94,346,481	116,953,497	127,176,249	200,613,879
1882.	59,799,644	33,582,080	110,133,124	140,077,194	149,777,214	227,426,835
1883.	61,390,118	33,283,302	107,648,383	143,944,957	145,938,095	228,084,650
1884.	61,579,021	30,449,410	102,398,228	130,490,053	137,493,917	219,998,642
1885.	61,711,566	30,720,762	104,014,660	126,827,792	138,762,695	219,147,080
1886.	61,662,093	31,030,499	111,449,365	132,833,313	146,954,260	228,061,872
1887.	60,860,561	32,478,118	112,656,985	139,753,755	149,704,402	230,393,072
1888.	60,345,035	32,205,259	125,136,473	141,002,373	163,990,797	243,504,164
1889.	60,229,752	32,207,144	134,650,732	149,958,980	173,029,602	253,789,803
1890.	59,974,902	32,834,511	135,548,704	153,301,335	173,207,587	254,546,320
1891.	60,700,697	33,061,042	148,396,968	171,082,677	187,332,325	269,307,032
1892.	61,626,311	33,788,679	166,668,471	193,455,883	208,062,169	291,635,251
1893.	62,009,346	33,811,925	174,776,722	206,623,042	217,195,975	302,696,715
1894.	62,063,371	31,166,003	181,743,890	204,124,939	221,006,724	307,500,020
1895.	61,800,700	30,807,041	190,916,939	203,730,800	229,794,322	316,536,527
1896.	62,043,173	31,456,297	193,616,409	213,211,996	232,338,086	320,937,643
1897.	62,027,703	34,350,118	211,788,096	212,014,635	252,660,768	341,163,595
1898.	62,571,920	37,873,934	236,161,062	223,806,320	281,076,656	370,583,991
1899.	63,726,399	41,513,139	266,504,528	251,467,076	318,624,033	412,504,768
1900.	65,154,594	46,574,780	305,140,242	279,279,761	356,394,095	459,715,065
1901.	67,035,615	50,601,205	349,573,327	388,299,888	420,003,743	531,829,324
1902.	69,869,670	55,412,598	390,370,493	430,662,670	466,963,829	585,761,109
1903.	76,453,125	60,244,072	424,167,140	472,019,689	507,527,550	641,543,226
1904.	79,234,191	61,769,888	470,265,744	509,011,993	554,014,076	695,417,756
1905.	82,655,828	64,025,643	531,243,476	559,814,918	618,678,633	767,490,183
1906.	91,035,604	70,638,870	605,968,513	655,869,879	713,790,553	878,512,076
1907.	95,953,732	75,784,482	654,839,711	709,975,274	769,026,924	945,685,708
1908.	96,147,526	71,401,697	658,367,015	670,170,833	762,077,184	941,290,619

^a The statistics of this table are averages computed from the monthly returns in each year.

^b Including deposits of federal and provincial governments.

^c Excluding capital and reserves.

^d Including amounts deposited elsewhere than in Canada, not previously included in deposits.

(2) STATEMENT OF CHARTERED BANKS FOR THE CALENDAR YEARS, 1904-1908.a

ASSETS.

Schedule.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.
Balances due from agencies of the banks or from other banks or agencies in the United Kingdom.....	\$7,523,615	\$9,960,562	\$8,877,979	\$6,027,157	\$9,828,186
Balances due from agencies of chartered banks or from other banks or agencies elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom.....	16,817,357	19,201,939	16,801,119	15,363,728	30,822,761
Bank premises.....	9,720,652	10,707,018	12,844,918	16,248,177	18,144,338
Call and short loans on stocks and bonds in Canada.....	36,999,790	42,059,144	56,597,649	49,192,291	42,060,715
Call and short loans elsewhere than in Canada.....	41,212,007	51,452,955	59,303,639	52,907,513	60,764,075
Current loans in Canada.....	407,475,439	436,059,384	500,770,572	574,784,939	529,320,134
Current loans elsewhere than in Canada.....	18,665,002	25,097,824	35,777,625	27,340,135	24,383,503
Deposits made with and balances due from other banks in Canada.....	6,064,286	6,834,816	7,667,093	9,186,472	10,641,722
Deposits with Dominion government for security of note circulation.....	3,237,891	3,448,463	3,923,531	4,304,524	4,249,367
Dominion notes.....	33,428,779	38,053,983	40,186,748	46,486,741	56,007,874
Dominion and provincial government securities.....	10,705,202	8,833,626	9,360,614	9,546,927	9,522,743
Loans to provincial governments.....	2,465,495	1,960,465	1,353,258	2,183,799	5,542,149
Loans to other banks in Canada.....	820,508	768,161	2,521,860	2,025,495	7,789,831
Mortgages on real estate sold by banks.....	761,885	602,524	447,001	407,492	470,441
Municipal securities in Canada and public securities elsewhere than in Canada.....	15,560,145	18,820,985	20,460,670	21,198,817	19,788,937
Notes of and checks on other banks.....	19,045,787	22,883,207	27,083,043	29,496,390	27,843,677
Overdue debts.....	2,194,260	1,985,146	2,007,136	3,566,597	8,100,257
Railway and other bonds, debentures, and stocks.....	38,779,477	39,974,520	41,125,898	41,239,589	42,651,006
Real estate other than bank premises.....	739,905	681,628	801,211	923,523	1,416,659
Specie.....	16,879,092	18,536,340	21,100,833	24,063,779	24,646,402
Other assets.....	6,321,182	8,367,493	9,439,679	9,191,623	7,295,842
Total assets.....	695,417,756	767,490,183	878,512,076	945,685,708	941,290,619

LIABILITIES.

Liabilities to shareholders:					
Capital paid up.....	\$79,234,191	\$82,655,828	\$91,035,604	\$95,953,732	\$96,147,526
Reserve or reserve fund.....	52,082,335	56,474,124	64,002,266	69,806,892	72,041,265
Total.....	131,316,526	139,129,952	155,037,870	165,760,624	168,188,791
Other liabilities:					
Balances due to agencies of Canadian banks or to other banks or agencies in the United Kingdom.....	5,739,709	5,081,798	6,771,683	11,240,826	5,694,437
Balances due to agencies of Canadian banks or to other banks or agencies elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom.....	1,498,340	1,715,171	2,292,718	4,397,200	3,636,753
Balance due to Dominion government after deducting advances for credits, pay lists, etc.....	3,349,179	3,107,678	4,656,857	6,379,118	5,775,400
Balance due to provincial governments.....	5,559,020	7,282,441	8,358,140	10,276,445	10,973,477
Deposits by the public payable on demand in Canada.....	117,962,023	138,116,550	165,144,569	166,342,144	169,721,755
Deposits by the public payable after notice or on a fixed day in Canada.....	307,007,192	338,411,275	381,778,705	413,014,657	406,103,063
Deposits made by and balances due to other banks in Canada.....	4,542,724	5,152,395	5,562,900	6,786,223	7,338,252
Deposits elsewhere than in Canada.....	36,388,330	44,325,531	46,030,241	58,828,181	65,793,319
Loans from other banks in Canada, secured, including bills rediscounted.....	823,339	791,736	2,616,806	2,078,923	8,929,166
Notes in circulation.....	61,769,888	64,025,643	70,638,870	75,784,482	71,401,697
Liabilities not included under foregoing heads.....	9,373,832	10,668,415	19,939,064	13,898,725	6,709,865
Total.....	554,014,076	618,678,633	713,790,553	769,026,924	762,077,184
Total liabilities to shareholders, and other liabilities.....	685,330,602	757,808,585	868,828,423	934,787,548	930,265,975
Excess of assets over all liabilities, undivided profits not included.....	10,087,154	9,681,598	9,683,653	10,898,160	11,024,644

a The statistics of this table are averages computed from monthly returns in each year.

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(3) PRINCIPAL ASSETS OF EACH OF THE CHARTERED BANKS OF CANADA, DECEMBER 31, 1908.

Chartered banks.	Specie.	Dominion notes.	Call and short loans in Canada.	Current loans in Canada.	Other assets.	Total assets.
Bank of British North America	\$916,328	\$1,846,338	\$1,288,758	\$17,278,656	\$22,554,152	\$43,884,232
Bank of Hamilton	558,688	2,261,122	2,068,566	18,740,002	10,185,021	33,813,399
Bank of New Brunswick	254,330	484,796	553,974	4,883,939	1,651,199	7,828,238
Bank of Nova Scotia	2,399,623	2,598,022	1,968,557	13,561,217	24,219,329	44,746,648
Bank of Montreal	6,109,969	9,997,919	9,997,919	74,051,785	106,963,055	197,122,728
Bank of Ottawa	775,146	2,918,531	837,891	20,586,837	8,431,454	33,549,857
Bank of Toronto	714,514	2,880,431	1,853,017	26,977,711	7,329,618	39,755,291
Banque d'Hochelega	282,403	1,115,911	615,031	13,338,795	4,428,895	19,781,035
Banque Nationale	138,146	494,140	935,730	10,923,915	2,133,849	14,625,780
Banque Provinciale du Canada	67,414	36,977	948,653	2,674,167	2,418,015	6,145,226
Banque de St. Hyacinthe ^a				30,698	1,060,793	1,091,491
Banque de St. Jean ^b	16		1,024		144,738	145,778
Canadian Bank of Commerce	4,471,001	9,137,358	7,327,600	63,893,420	36,425,865	121,255,244
Dominion Bank	1,138,165	4,766,913	3,261,660	30,960,438	10,754,205	50,881,381
Eastern Townships Bank	413,940	718,006	920,477	13,985,468	5,503,001	21,540,892
Farmers Bank of Canada	7,238	63,812	591,518	782,600	880,059	2,325,227
Home Bank of Canada	53,467	502,085	2,157,297	3,489,963	1,508,977	7,711,789
Imperial Bank of Canada	1,128,575	6,050,176	3,385,994	25,168,246	13,128,014	48,861,005
Merchants Bank of Canada	1,559,004	2,785,804	2,313,196	29,558,357	21,159,995	57,376,356
Metropolitan Bank	102,813	745,527	845,145	3,991,635	2,239,589	7,924,709
Molson Bank	556,016	2,026,144	2,742,514	22,414,213	7,623,368	35,162,255
Northern Crown Bank	179,742	1,233,307	140,713	8,202,901	3,391,952	13,148,615
Quebec Bank	378,545	438,531	1,384,182	9,878,805	2,748,986	14,829,409
Royal Bank of Canada	3,221,717	3,760,344	1,936,986	21,411,972	20,139,191	50,470,210
St. Stephens Bank	9,563	21,156	10,000	596,020	215,399	852,138
Sovereign Bank of Canada ^c	178	1,869	225,792	2,401,116	6,423,180	9,055,135
Standard Bank of Canada	319,042	1,110,881	1,433,647	13,008,731	4,826,570	20,698,871
Sterling Bank of Canada	31,054	785,596	875,494	3,076,295	1,230,679	5,999,118
Traders Bank of Canada	400,327	2,632,234	1,871,773	23,512,673	6,442,583	34,859,590
Union Bank of Canada	560,215	3,805,238	1,088,330	19,371,508	8,389,901	33,715,252
Union Bank of Halifax	300,319	849,017	133,629	8,561,599	4,339,519	14,184,083
United Empire Bank of Canada	14,672	21,564	111,650	1,254,973	664,336	2,066,595
Western Bank of Canada	37,504	35,011		3,236,170	2,936,388	6,245,073
Total	27,099,074	66,124,760	43,827,774	511,808,909	352,491,773	1,001,352,290

^a Suspended payment July 25, 1908.

^b Went into liquidation April 28, 1908.

^c Is being wound up.

(4) PRINCIPAL LIABILITIES OF EACH OF THE CHARTERED BANKS OF CANADA, DECEMBER 31, 1908.

Chartered banks.	Capital paid up.	Rest or reserve fund.	Notes in circulation.	Deposited by the public in Canada.	Other liabilities.	Total liabilities. ^a	Rate of last dividend.
							<i>Per cent.</i>
Bank of British North America.....	\$4,866,666	\$2,336,000	\$2,868,943	\$23,315,129	\$8,183,240	\$34,367,312	7
Bank of Hamilton.....	2,473,960	2,473,960	2,145,498	25,738,886	504,556	28,388,940	10
Bank of New Brunswick.....	737,500	1,291,875	679,455	4,798,583	294,649	5,771,687	13
Bank of Nova Scotia.....	3,000,000	5,400,000	2,888,974	24,269,301	8,918,070	36,076,345	12
Bank of Montreal.....	14,000,000	12,000,000	11,068,347	117,488,783	41,331,941	169,889,051	10
Bank of Ottawa.....	3,000,000	3,000,000	2,634,405	23,884,489	537,919	27,056,813	10
Bank of Toronto.....	4,000,000	4,500,000	3,019,219	27,236,893	552,283	30,808,395	10
Banque d'Hochelega.....	2,500,000	2,150,000	1,978,756	12,692,474	376,408	15,047,638	8
Banque Nationale.....	1,886,491	900,000	1,723,302	9,216,260	602,489	11,542,451	7
Banque Provinciale du Canada.....	1,000,000	300,000	931,313	3,525,682	377,953	4,834,948	5
Banque de St. Hyacinthe ^b	339,375	75,000	28,535	645,086	8,116	681,737	-----
Banque de St. Jean ^c	-----	-----	10,659	295,418	72,593	378,580	-----
Canadian Bank of Commerce.....	10,000,000	6,000,000	8,596,268	78,362,075	17,891,751	104,850,094	8
Dominion Bank.....	3,983,392	4,981,731	3,087,539	37,801,510	476,105	41,365,154	12
Eastern Townships Bank.....	3,000,000	2,000,000	2,307,455	13,702,189	181,174	16,190,818	8
Farmers Bank of Canada.....	555,254	-----	308,745	1,382,816	49,622	1,741,183	4
Home Bank of Canada.....	929,033	297,705	915,190	5,451,158	76,582	6,442,930	6
Imperial Bank of Canada.....	5,000,000	5,000,000	3,345,970	33,940,590	764,187	38,050,747	11
Merchants Bank of Canada.....	6,000,000	4,000,000	4,267,423	38,697,788	3,901,869	46,867,080	8
Metropolitan Bank.....	1,000,000	1,000,000	918,922	4,681,349	31,064	5,631,335	8
Molson Bank.....	3,500,000	3,500,000	2,677,423	24,496,776	646,077	27,820,276	10
Northern Crown Bank.....	2,201,568	50,000	1,688,800	8,419,161	789,087	10,897,048	5
Quebec Bank.....	2,500,000	1,250,000	1,583,773	8,732,145	415,474	10,731,392	7
Royal Bank of Canada.....	3,000,000	4,600,000	3,556,432	27,624,130	10,610,963	41,791,525	10
St. Stephens Bank.....	200,000	52,500	179,750	384,256	22,492	586,498	5
Sovereign Bank of Canada ^d	3,000,000	-----	104,025	615,541	5,891,312	6,610,878	-----
Standard Bank of Canada.....	1,560,110	1,760,110	1,261,147	15,738,811	114,912	17,114,870	12
Sterling Bank of Canada.....	812,630	183,749	704,293	4,140,200	109,735	4,954,228	5
Traders Bank of Canada.....	4,353,592	2,000,000	2,600,905	25,158,704	470,035	28,229,644	7
Union Bank of Canada.....	3,201,210	1,800,000	2,936,583	23,704,968	1,374,352	28,015,843	7
Union Bank of Halifax.....	1,500,000	1,175,000	1,429,835	8,020,622	1,888,102	11,338,559	8
United Empire Bank of Canada.....	501,792	-----	129,315	1,082,166	339,762	1,551,243	4
Western Bank of Canada.....	555,000	350,000	481,055	4,655,086	155,285	5,291,426	7
Total.....	96,457,573	74,427,630	73,058,234	639,899,365	107,959,069	820,916,668	-----

^a Exclusive of capital stock and rest or reserve fund.

^b Suspended payment July 25, 1908.

^c Went into liquidation April 28, 1908.

^d Is being wound up.

(5) AVERAGE MONTHLY CIRCULATION OF DOMINION NOTES, BY DENOMINATIONS, 1884-1908.^a

Calendar year.	Denominations.						Total average.
	\$5,000.	\$500 and \$1,000.	\$50 and \$100.	\$4, \$5, \$10, and \$20.	\$1 and \$2.	Fractionals.	
1884		\$9,507,000	\$760,353	\$518,409	\$5,454,760	\$183,030	\$16,423,552
1885		9,885,042	612,646	583,480	5,310,554	177,118	16,568,840
1886		9,739,375	557,123	525,471	5,472,393	164,986	16,459,348
1887		9,961,417	503,446	497,106	5,976,094	162,838	15,100,901
1888		9,027,208	451,225	492,788	6,094,316	167,282	16,232,819
1889		8,450,542	412,275	471,617	6,127,394	170,470	15,632,298
1890		8,211,000	350,000	434,760	6,331,600	174,000	15,501,360
1891		9,050,000	280,860	449,644	6,412,825	181,130	16,374,459
1892		9,895,000	299,988	473,290	6,551,283	187,880	17,407,441
1893		11,280,125	250,820	451,061	6,788,000	196,000	18,966,006
1894		13,297,166	227,070	403,334	6,615,048	206,550	20,749,168
1895		13,834,666	232,300	369,439	6,743,555	217,802	21,397,762
1896	^b \$2,285,000	12,135,875	219,600	348,827	6,980,012	227,390	22,196,704
1897	4,891,250	10,309,208	241,821	322,751	7,237,520	236,156	23,238,706
1898	6,410,417	8,137,833	216,883	364,992	7,851,532	248,122	23,229,779
1899	7,474,583	8,130,083	211,196	434,286	8,524,327	267,175	25,041,650
1900	8,480,000	7,854,500	218,921	395,573	9,315,354	286,117	26,550,465
1901	8,862,083	9,363,375	232,142	524,480	9,757,778	312,911	29,052,759
1902	11,358,750	9,010,667	229,858	639,937	10,463,359	338,842	32,041,413
1903	18,004,167	7,649,000	189,121	558,987	11,409,251	352,934	38,163,460
1904	23,460,000	6,941,167	150,758	456,313	11,995,396	362,203	43,365,837
1905	28,300,417	6,785,792	128,554	493,264	12,630,271	376,359	48,714,657
1906	30,019,583	6,919,583	122,883	392,779	13,997,323	407,381	51,859,532
1907	36,163,667	6,703,625	116,921	334,589	15,188,627	450,011	59,017,440
1908	45,739,583	7,143,125	105,154	214,831	14,910,365	489,886	68,602,944

^a The statistics of this table are averages computed from the monthly returns of each year.

^b Three months only.

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(6) BUSINESS OF THE DOMINION GOVERNMENT SAVINGS BANKS, 1868-1908.

Fiscal year.	Cash deposits in year.	Interest on total deposits.	Total cash and interest.	Withdrawals in year.	At credit of depositors June 30.
1868	\$292,094	\$66,078	\$359,072	\$297,900	\$1,483,219
1869	323,138	69,528	392,666	281,360	1,594,525
1870	462,481	77,128	539,609	311,564	1,822,570
1871	556,669	88,256	644,925	395,458	2,072,037
1872	1,085,289	100,836	1,186,125	1,142,346	2,154,234
1873	2,442,917	93,892	2,536,809	1,732,873	2,958,170
1874	3,207,689	154,491	3,362,180	2,564,996	4,005,295
1875	3,570,289	177,896	3,748,185	3,508,389	4,245,091
1876	3,222,672	178,572	2,951,244	3,343,170	4,303,165
1877	3,911,576	190,156	4,101,732	3,574,204	4,830,693
1878	5,366,358	232,816	5,599,174	4,687,338	5,742,729
1879	4,549,290	242,605	4,791,955	4,431,991	6,102,492
1880	5,240,195	268,729	5,508,924	4,504,129	7,107,287
1881	6,494,640	323,874	6,818,514	4,297,356	9,628,445
1882	7,090,434	411,949	7,502,383	4,835,828	12,295,000
1883	7,067,390	505,388	7,572,778	5,694,908	14,242,870
1884	6,807,612	576,653	7,384,265	5,655,171	15,971,084
1885	7,170,480	645,707	7,816,187	5,899,635	17,888,536
1886	7,513,669	728,546	8,242,615	6,115,708	20,014,442
1887	6,134,911	795,164	6,930,075	5,609,992	21,334,525
1888	3,541,144	813,349	4,354,493	5,006,992	20,682,025
1889	3,645,188	777,300	4,422,488	5,159,579	19,944,935
1890	3,086,935	688,417	3,775,352	4,698,476	19,021,812
1891	2,858,535	614,094	3,472,629	4,833,062	17,661,378
1892	3,155,344	585,989	3,741,333	4,171,565	17,231,146
1893	3,410,093	588,319	3,998,412	3,533,094	17,696,464
1894	3,400,456	601,420	4,001,876	3,920,196	17,778,144
1895	3,242,278	594,283	3,836,561	3,969,749	17,644,956
1896	3,293,378	598,445	3,891,823	3,670,391	17,866,389
1897	3,186,581	597,580	3,784,161	5,096,403	16,554,147
1898	2,705,020	463,313	3,168,333	4,092,309	15,630,171
1899	2,514,398	449,166	2,963,564	3,123,635	15,470,100
1900	2,784,581	452,400	3,236,981	3,064,825	15,642,257
1901	2,881,477	462,809	3,344,286	2,888,406	16,098,136
1902	2,971,583	473,334	3,444,917	3,425,284	16,117,769
1903	3,051,868	475,244	3,527,112	3,129,088	16,515,793
1904	2,879,793	483,232	3,363,025	3,140,084	16,738,734
1905	2,817,267	489,322	3,306,589	3,396,198	16,649,126
1906	2,744,818	473,281	3,218,099	3,693,101	16,174,124
1907 (9 months)	1,981,286	333,866	2,315,152	3,400,702	a 15,088,574
1908	2,457,330	430,539	2,893,869	2,965,582	a 15,016,861
Totals for 41 fiscal years.....	145,119,466	17,380,026	162,499,492	149,193,037	b 15,016,861

a March 31.

b This amount includes \$1,422,047 at credit of depositors June 30, 1867, together with \$38,418 at credit of New Brunswick account in 1871 and \$249,941 at credit of Prince Edward Island account in 1871.

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(7) BUSINESS OF THE POST-OFFICE SAVINGS BANKS, 1868-1908.

Fiscal year.	Savings banks at end of fiscal year.	Deposits received in year.	Transferred from government savings banks to post-office savings banks.	Interest on deposits in year.	Total cash and interest.	Amount withdrawn in year.	Amount at credit of open accounts at end of year.	Open accounts at end of year.
1868 a	81	\$212,507		\$939	\$213,446	\$8,857	\$204,589	2,102
1869	213	927,885		21,095	948,980	296,754	856,814	7,212
1870	226	1,347,901		48,680	1,396,580	664,556	1,588,849	12,178
1871	230	1,917,576		84,274	2,001,850	1,093,439	2,497,260	17,153
1872	235	2,261,631		116,175	2,377,806	1,778,565	3,096,500	21,059
1873	239	2,306,918		126,933	2,433,851	2,323,299	3,207,052	23,526
1874	266	2,340,284		126,273	2,466,557	2,468,643	3,204,965	24,968
1875	268	1,942,346		120,758	2,063,104	2,341,979	2,926,090	24,294
1876	279	1,726,204		110,116	1,836,320	2,021,458	2,740,953	24,415
1877	287	1,521,000		104,068	1,625,068	1,726,083	2,639,937	24,074
1878	295	1,734,371		103,834	1,828,205	1,713,659	2,754,484	25,535
1879	297	1,973,243		110,913	2,084,156	1,733,449	3,105,191	27,445
1880	297	2,720,216		136,075	2,856,291	2,015,813	3,945,669	31,365
1881	304	4,175,042		184,905	4,359,947	2,097,389	6,208,227	39,605
1882	308	6,435,989		291,065	6,727,054	3,461,619	9,473,662	51,463
1883	330	8,826,266		407,305	7,233,571	4,730,995	11,976,237	61,059
1884	343	6,441,439		477,487	6,918,926	5,649,611	13,245,553	66,682
1885	355	7,098,459		539,561	7,638,020	5,793,032	15,090,540	73,322
1886	392	7,645,227		607,075	8,252,302	6,183,471	17,159,372	80,870
1887	415	8,272,404		692,404	8,964,445	6,626,068	19,497,750	90,159
1888	433	7,722,330	\$217,385	765,639	8,705,354	7,514,072	20,689,033	101,693
1889	463	7,926,634	1,085,980	841,922	9,854,536	7,532,146	23,011,423	113,123
1890	494	6,599,896		786,875	7,554,273	8,575,042	21,990,653	112,321
1891	634	6,500,372	389,169	734,431	7,623,972	7,875,978	21,738,648	111,230
1892	642	7,056,002		734,591	7,790,593	7,230,839	22,298,402	110,805
1893	673	7,708,888		777,483	8,486,371	6,631,579	24,153,194	114,275
1894	699	7,524,286	218,174	835,800	8,578,260	7,473,575	25,257,868	117,020
1895	731	7,488,028	493,889	876,049	8,857,966	7,310,292	26,805,542	120,628
1896	755	8,138,947	449,982	944,525	9,533,454	7,406,066	28,932,930	126,442
1897	779	8,223,000	1,856,474	1,024,512	11,024,512	7,656,087	32,380,829	135,737
1898	814	9,183,693	786,868	882,726	10,953,287	8,853,178	34,480,938	142,289
1899	838	8,310,630		1,001,900	9,312,530	9,021,863	34,771,605	142,141
1900	847	10,448,485	141,172	1,049,699	11,639,356	8,903,505	37,507,465	150,987
1901	895	11,091,099		1,126,952	12,218,051	9,774,695	39,950,813	157,368
1902	915	11,382,035	415,508	1,188,925	12,986,468	10,617,071	42,320,210	162,761
1903	934	12,060,825		1,254,048	13,314,873	11,379,757	44,255,327	167,023
1904	961	11,737,940		1,309,567	13,047,507	11,883,128	45,419,706	168,572
1905	989	10,504,430	252,774	1,320,512	12,077,716	12,129,101	45,368,321	165,518
1906	1,011	10,805,458	559,593	1,328,206	12,693,257	12,324,529	45,736,488	164,542
1907 (9 months)	1,043	8,803,503	1,216,169	1,027,834	11,047,506	9,330,766	47,453,228	167,285
1908	1,084	12,293,274	59,244	1,369,405	13,721,923	13,610,866	47,564,284	165,691
Totals for 41 fiscal years.		261,326,300	8,309,883	25,691,545	295,337,728	257,762,884		

a Three months only.

NOTE.—The fiscal year of the Dominion for 1868-1906 ended June 30, and since that date it ends March 31.

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(8) TOTAL BUSINESS OF POST-OFFICE AND DOMINION GOVERNMENT SAVINGS BANKS, 1868-1908.

Fiscal year.	Cash deposits in year.	Interest on total deposits.	Total cash and interest.	Withdrawals in year.	At credit of depositors June 30.
1868	\$505,501	\$67,017	\$572,518	\$306,757	\$1,687,808
1869	1,251,023	90,622	1,341,645	578,114	2,451,335
1870	1,810,382	125,817	1,936,199	976,119	3,411,419
1871	2,474,245	172,530	2,646,775	1,488,897	4,569,297
1872	3,385,338	217,010	3,602,348	2,920,911	5,250,734
1873	4,749,835	220,825	4,970,660	4,056,172	6,165,222
1874	5,797,914	280,764	6,078,678	5,033,639	7,210,261
1875	5,512,635	298,654	5,811,289	5,850,368	7,171,181
1876	4,948,877	288,688	5,237,565	5,364,628	7,044,118
1877	5,432,576	294,224	5,726,800	5,300,287	7,470,631
1878	7,090,729	336,651	7,427,380	6,400,997	8,497,013
1879	6,522,533	353,578	6,876,111	6,105,441	9,207,683
1880	7,960,411	404,804	8,365,215	6,519,942	11,052,956
1881	10,669,682	508,779	11,178,461	6,394,745	15,836,672
1882	13,526,422	703,014	14,229,436	8,297,446	21,768,662
1883	13,893,656	912,693	14,806,349	10,355,903	26,219,108
1884	13,249,071	1,054,140	14,303,211	11,304,782	29,217,537
1885	14,268,939	1,185,267	15,454,206	11,692,666	32,979,076
1886	15,158,296	1,335,620	16,493,916	12,299,179	37,173,814
1887	14,406,952	1,487,569	15,894,521	12,236,060	40,832,275
1888	11,480,859	1,578,988	13,059,847	12,521,064	41,371,058
1889	12,657,802	1,619,222	14,277,024	12,691,725	42,956,358
1890	9,854,333	1,475,292	11,329,625	13,273,518	41,012,465
1891	9,748,076	1,348,525	11,096,601	12,709,040	39,400,026
1892	10,211,345	1,320,580	11,531,925	11,402,404	39,529,548
1893	11,118,981	1,365,802	12,484,783	10,164,673	41,849,658
1894	11,142,916	1,437,220	12,580,136	11,393,782	43,036,012
1895	11,224,195	1,470,332	12,694,527	11,280,041	44,450,499
1896	11,882,307	1,542,970	13,425,277	11,076,457	46,799,319
1897	13,266,055	1,622,092	14,888,147	12,752,490	48,934,976
1898	12,675,591	1,446,039	14,121,630	12,945,487	50,111,119
1899	10,825,028	1,451,066	12,276,094	12,145,498	50,241,715
1900	13,374,238	1,502,090	14,876,337	11,968,330	53,149,722
1901	13,972,574	1,589,761	15,562,335	12,663,100	56,048,957
1902	14,769,126	1,662,258	16,431,384	14,042,355	58,437,987
1903	15,112,695	1,729,293	16,841,988	14,508,845	60,771,129
1904	14,617,733	1,792,799	16,410,532	15,023,212	62,158,450
1905	13,574,471	1,809,834	15,384,305	15,525,298	62,017,457
1906	14,109,869	1,801,487	15,911,356	16,017,631	61,911,182
1907 (9 months)	12,000,958	1,361,700	13,362,658	12,731,468	^a 62,541,802
1908	14,809,848	1,805,944	16,615,792	16,576,448	^a 62,581,145
Totals for 41 fiscal years.	415,044,018	43,071,572	458,115,590	396,955,921	^b 62,581,145

^a March 31.

^b This includes the amount at credit of depositors June 30, 1867.

APPENDIX D.

SPECIMEN FORMS USED BY BRANCHES IN REPORTS TO
HEAD-OFFICE.

31870—10—12

I.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF PROFITS. ----- BRANCH.

ABSTRACT OF CHARGES ACCOUNT FROM DATE OF ----- TO ----- 19-----

Salaries, viz:	Months at \$	per annum.....	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
	" \$	"	
Rent of Office			
Taxes..... { Office			
	officers.....		
Insurance			
Water			
Fuel :—Wood.....			
Coal			
Light.....			
Repairs.....			
Office Furniture.....			
Cleaning Office.....			
Stationery.....			
Subscriptions to Newspapers, Books, etc			
Commercial Agency.....			
Rent and Depreciation of Office Furniture.....			
Rent of Telephone			
Clearing House Expenses.. ..			
Advertising			
Postage			
Telegraph Messages.....			
Telephone			
Travelling Expenses			
Express and Freight Charges on Stationery, etc.....			
Street Car Tickets			
Laundry.....			
Sundries (to be detailed)			
	Total.....		(\$)
Less Telegraph Messages Recovered			
" Telephone " "			
" Postage Recovered			
" Rent of Offices, sublet.....			
Received from			
Transferred to Profit and Loss Account.....			(\$)

IV.

INTEREST ON DEMAND NOTES WITH PAYMENTS.

SHOWING INTEREST ACCRUED TO DATE.

[illegible]

V.

RETURN OF THE LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF

-----BRANCH

AS ON THE ----- DAY OF ----- 19

LIABILITIES.

2. Due to Dominion Government.....
3. Due to Provincial Governments.....
4. Deposits by the Public, payable on demand, in Canada.....
5. Deposits by the Public, payable after notice or on a fixed day in Canada.....
- Drafts issued account..... \$
- Balance at Credit of Branch Clearings Account..... \$
8. Deposits made by, and Balances due to, other Banks in Canada.....
9. Balances due to Agencies of the Bank in the United Kingdom.....
10. Balances due to Agencies of the Bank elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom.....
- Balance at Credit of Interest and Exchange Accounts.....

ASSETS.

Cash per Specification:

- Specie..... \$
- Legals..... \$
- Notes of this Bank..... \$
- Notes of other Banks..... \$
- Cheques of other Banks..... \$
- Items held in Cash..... \$

Cash Items Account:

- Parcels, Checks, and Bank Drafts..... \$
- Sight and Demand Drafts..... \$

Balance at Debit Branch Clearing Account.....

6. Deposits made with, and balances due from, other Banks in Canada.....
7. Balances due from Agencies of the Bank in the United Kingdom.....
8. Balances due from Agencies of the Bank elsewhere than in Canada and the United Kingdom.....
12. Call and Short Loans on Stocks and Bonds in Canada.....
14. Current Loans in Canada.....
18. Overdue Debts.....
19. Real Estate, other than Bank Premises.....
20. Mortgages on Real Estate sold by the Bank.....
22. Other Assets not included under the foregoing heads.....

- Charges Account.....
- Balance at Debit of Reserved Interest Account.....

\$

\$

We declare that the above return is made up from the books of this office, and that to the best of our knowledge and belief, it is correct, and shows truly the financial position of the branch.

.....Manager.

.....Accountant.

VI.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE ACCOUNT.

Balance at Credit of Account.....	10.....		
Total Exchange on U. S. Drafts sold.....			
" " " Sterling " ".....			
" Commission on U. S. Cash Items.....			
" " " Collections.....			
" Exchange on Sterling " ".....			
" " " Bills of Exchange bought.....			
" " " Continental Bills of Exchange.....			
Total Debit Exchange on Bills of Exchange bought, and London Agent's charges (Rebates, Stamps, Etc.).....			
Total paid for Collection Currency Bills, Discount on New York Funds, etc.....			
Amount Reserved for London Agents' Charges:			
For Rebates.....	£		
" Interest on Overdue Account.....	£		
" Commission on Demand Drafts, Cables, etc.....	£		
" " " Sixty Day Drafts.....	£		
" " " Commercial Credits.....	£		
" Stamps.....	£		
" to cover London Balance Cr.....	£	@	£
			£ \$
Less—			
Premium London Balance Dr.....	£	@	
Paris Exchange adjusted.....			
Berlin " " ".....			
Naples " " ".....			
Balance.....			
			\$



2

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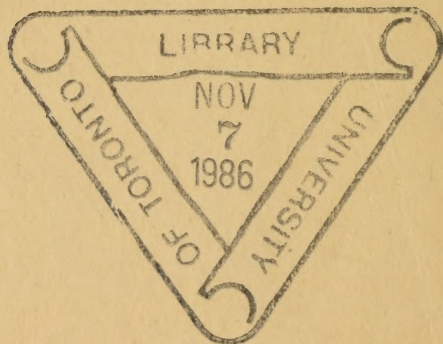
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